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ABSTRACT

The meeting reported in this document was held to focus attention on some of the problems that governments in developing countries encounter when they try, in introducing educational reforms, to make sure that what they choose meets the needs of people in disadvantaged and remote areas. Participants included 12 experts from 10 Asian countries (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Thailand), as well as staff of the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and the Bangkok (Thailand) UNESCO office. The report contains a summary of statements and reports made by two working groups concerning the problems of educational administration in remote areas of their countries. The first group concentrated on questions of supply, while the second examined improvement in administration in relation to educational reform. The report contains four sections concerning, respectively, the developmental and educational setting in which educational administration functions, what educational administration is supposed to do, what educational administration does, and future research needs. Six papers appended to the report are representative of the discussion of the main issues facing the Asian countries on the administration of education in remote rural areas. (Author/MLF)

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Problems of educational administration in remote rural areas

Report of an expert meeting
in Kathmandu, Nepal,
7-11 May 1979

Prepared by Raymond F. Lyons, *assisted by* Joyce E. Collins

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PREFACE

This meeting represented an important link in the development of the work of the Institute on educational administration, as between the implementation and conclusion of its first Medium-Term Plan (1973-1978), and the inception of its new Medium-Term Plan (1979-83). This new plan will imply a substantial and new effort of research and training on problems of administration at the local level. It follows research on school location ("school map"), primary school inspection, and training needs in the context of administrative reform during the preceding plan period and disparities in educational provision as between regions which is not yet completed.

The meeting arose from the Institute's study of the organisation of education in the Sankhuwa Sabha district of Nepal, undertaken in close co-operation with specialists from the Ministry of Education, which like the meeting itself was partly financed by the Overseas Development Administration of the United Kingdom and the Bundesministerium für wirtschaftliche Zusammenarbeit (Federal Ministry for Economic Co-operation) of the Federal Republic of Germany. From this work, it became clear that the organisation of administration at the local level, within a context stated by the Government, should be seen as an important factor in the success or the failure of the reform of education. This study was the result of a rather modest approach to the problems of supply of human and other resources required for teaching, and the provision of administrative services needed to support and maintain the school system as well as to inform and co-operate with the local communities.

The Sankhuwa Sabha study indicated a number of areas where despite considerable progress educational management at district level had not yet become adapted to the demands which the expansion of education had put on it. These concerned measures to enable disadvantaged and remote areas to compensate for their extreme poverty and isolation within an educational development context as stated by the central government. Reporting and planning arrangements, given the part of responsibilities of local people for education, had not yet led to the necessary improvement of supply of buildings, trained teachers, books, materials and visual aids to the schools. Administrative and professional support for teaching needed to be strengthened. New ways by which district administration could involve all competent people in the district in support of the school needed to be devised. New forms of organisation of non-formal education linking education with productive work, to which the school system can contribute, are urgently needed, as an element in the economic and social development of disadvantaged areas.

It seemed therefore to be desirable, as a further step, to compare these findings to similar national experiences, and to clarify through a process of writing and discussion by experts drawn from countries in the Asian region, the notion of the tasks of administration at the local level. This would also enable us to examine the matter in an international perspective. In particular, it seemed useful to focus attention on some of the problems which governments encounter when they try, in introducing reforms, to make sure that what they decide at the centre corresponds with understood needs for education at the district level and that decisions at the national level are actually implemented by district offices in remote and highly disadvanted areas. The Institute hoped that the meeting of experts would provide new insights into the problems of communication, monitoring, supply and organisation and methods of work of district education offices, including the work of the inspectorate and the professional and administrative questions involved in it.

The meeting was organised with the invaluable co-operation of the Ministry of Education of Nepal and the Honourable Assistant Minister of Education, Mr. Madan Bahadur Pradhan enriched the proceedings by an opening speech. In addition, the Centre of Educational Research, Innovation and Development of Nepal associated itself with the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and IIEP in making the arrangements for the meeting in Kathmandu. It was attended by twelve expert participants from ten Asian countries, as well as staff of the IIEP and the Bangkok Unesco Office. The national experiences represented were the following: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Thailand.

The report of the expert meeting contains a summary of statements and group reports made by the participants concerning the problems of educational administration in remote areas of their countries. It also includes a number of prepared papers representative of the main substantive issues discussed at the meeting. It is our hope that these proceedings of what proved to be a very productive and constructive meeting will be of interest to all those who are working to improve and modernize their educational administration so that it is better able to meet the needs of the population.

Michel Debeauvais
Director

CONTENTS

Report of the meeting

Introduction 11

Chapter I
The setting in which educational administration functions 13

Chapter II
What educational administration is supposed to do 16

Chapter III
What educational administration does 34

Chapter IV
Conclusions 46

Appendix A - Outline of paper on "organisation of education in remote rural areas" 53

Appendix B - List of participants 55

Appendix C - List of documents 57

Documents presented at the meeting

The organisation of education in the Bhimtal Block, India
by D. P. Nayar 59

The supply of education in remote rural areas:
the case of the subdistricts Pahandut, Bukit Batu and Kapuas Tengah, Central Kalimantan, Indonesia
by Salikin Sumowardoyo 85

Educational administration in the remote rural areas of Pakistan
by Habibur Rehman and Mumtaz Akbar 111

The Philippines: Problems of educational administration in rural areas
by Priscilla S. Manalang 129

The organization of education in a selected remote rural area in Sri Lanka
by D. P. Wijegoonsasekera 155

The organization and administration of education in Thailand's rural areas
by Rung Kaewdang 179

Note : In addition, copies of any of the other papers which were prepared in roneoed form for the meeting, may be obtained from the IIEP on request. See Appendix C.

REPORT OF THE MEETING

INTRODUCTION

The meeting was organised with the following objectives in mind. It was intended, by an exchange of experience and an analysis of papers specially prepared for the meeting, to throw light on the problems which governments encounter within the framework of reform, in formulating and implementing educational plans and programmes for the supply of school education in remote rural areas. As regards administration at the local level, the expert meeting took the objective of examining alternative methods employed to provide education for the school population and the implications of these methods for the administrative structure, supply of materials and training of both administrative and teaching staff. It was intended also that the meeting would provide guidance on research needs related to administration of education in rural areas.

Materials prepared by the IIEP included a study by a Nepalese/IIEP team on "The organisation of education in the Sankhuwa Sabha district of Nepal" together with 11 papers prepared by national experts in accordance with a proposed outline which is to be found in Appendix A to this report and specialised papers by the Unesco Regional Office in Asia and by IIEP. A synthesis on some issues raised by participants' papers was also circulated to participants.

The meeting chose to examine some substantive issues of educational systems management at the local level, raised by the discussion, within two working groups. The first group concentrated on questions of supply. It sought to define the criteria by which national and local administrations might established priorities as between different types of supply, and how they might organise supply and maintenance of buildings, provision of inspection, supervision and support for teachers, and distribution and use of books and materials to the schools and pupils. The second working group concentrated on improvements in administration in relation to educational reform. In doing this, individual members of the group prepared contributions on what were judged to be the most important questions, namely: formulation of reforms, communication and co-ordination, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

This report is drawn from the group reports, plenary discussions and papers prepared for the meetings. It contains four sections: The developmental and educational setting in which educational administration functions; what educational administration is supposed to do; what educational administration does, and finally, some conclusions and thoughts about future research.

The six papers appended to this report are representative of the discussion of the main issues facing the Asian countries on the administration of education in remote rural areas.

CHAPTER I
THE SETTING IN WHICH EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION FUNCTIONS

The meeting discussed the characteristics of highly disadvantaged rural zones. It included remote rural areas in these. Compared to large towns or rural areas provided more adequately with public services, the seminar identified some of the geographical, economic, social, cultural and educational facts which were typical of disadvantaged zones. It considered what was being done, or could be done, in terms of development policy to offset the difficulties which had been shown to exist in them. It also examined what the presence or absence of economic development help from the centre meant for those who were responsible at the district level for administering education and for contributing to the formulation and implementation of national educational policies.

Although there were exceptions, such as one area cited near the national capital in the Philippines, most disadvantaged areas are remote from the national capital, and their relative neglect was said to be associated with a policy of giving preference to the more profitable investment areas before turning to the periphery. Remote areas are, by definition, not easily accessible, because for example of mountains, forest, swamps, desert or scattered islands and the lack of transport facilities. Communications are often rudimentary. Boats are needed (Bangladesh, Korea, Central Kalimantan in Indonesia), so too are camels and horses (Kunduz, Afghanistan), while in mountainous areas there may be no roads or even mule tracks so that all travel and carriage has to be on foot (Nepal hill and mountain areas). Many villages lack post and telephones, electricity and basic health services, a notable exception due to greater national wealth being provided by the example of Temerloh, a remote area in Malaysia, where there were adequate roads, telephone services and post offices.

In some cases climate was said to be unfavourable for work and study and bad for health, with extremes of drought and flood (Bangladesh) or seasonal extremes of temperature (Kunduz).

Participants mentioned a number of social and cultural factors, which constituted a challenge to development efforts and to education in the sense that administrators must become motivated to take action themselves and to understand and respond to the motivations of local people. Population, though increasing rapidly, was generally of low density with small scattered settlements. Numerous languages and dialects existed so that the medium of instruction, whether the main national language or English, was foreign to the inhabitants. In some countries, castes or tribes do not mix freely with others and this affects the duration of school attendance. Girls and young women may not

normally move without restriction outside the home. Parents may not send their daughters to school if a girls' school with women teachers is not available, which means that possibilities of co-education are limited. Moreover parents may lay greater stress on religious education so that children arrive at the state primary schools over age. Attitudes to the community, to work and to the school may be determined by a rigid system of loyalty to the family and to social position (maratabat in the Philippines) which involves the toleration of absenteeism and corruption within education, for example, if it is in the interest of the extended family. Other examples were given of the separation of school and community. Parents may disapprove of vocational education and of physical work by the children in the school since they regard the training of children for work as their responsibility. Teachers and principals may not be sensitive to the community's needs and may regard the school as their province alone.

Participants also mentioned that, in evaluating the setting for educational administration, regard should be given to the effects of social class and institutional factors on production and education. Land tenure systems were unfavourable for economic development. The majority of the population lived in conditions of considerable poverty while a minority possessed the main land resources as part of a rather rigid inegalitarian system of social stratification. There was insufficient popular participation in the government of districts.

In economic terms average productivity per worker and income per head were low. The main activity was agriculture and animal husbandry. Farms were below the economic size. There was little or no large scale industry. Participants mentioned that there was considerable wealth, particularly forests and minerals which could be exploited. But apart from isolated large scale plantations and mines, techniques of production tended to be elementary and artisanal. Capital intensity was not very significant. Co-operative development of local resources was at its beginnings.

The educational background

Some participants felt that education in the most disadvantaged rural areas was suffering from the effects of the environmental factors which have been mentioned, and at the same time that it was basically irrelevant to life and was counter-productive. It was "urban education conducted with the greatest inefficiency". It was therefore recommended by one participant that "policy in the development of education should not be to bring about a linear expansion of the existing pattern of urban education, but to strive to create a new model of education suited to the specific needs of the local environment".

In approaching this debate the participants presented ample evidence of the progress which had been achieved in the extension of education to rural areas and the dangers as well as the complexity of the problem of making education more economically productive as part of action to promote development at the local level. The communities did not want complete dualism as between urban and rural educational provision. Evidence was presented (Manalang, Philippines) that the community wanted to see the "three R's and proper conduct decently taught" to its children since it felt that these were useful and "essential for survival, for employment and for further schooling". If new elements

were added to the curriculum it seemed important that they should be adequately taught and should relevant to the interests of the local people, that is not imposed in an unthinking manner by the centre. There was thus a scale of priorities to be observed as regards the phasing of the introduction of new elements in the curriculum. Much remained to be done before it could be said that the essentials were adequately taught to the children. All the countries represented had carried out a rapid quantitative expansion of school education in the past 20 years but primary education was still not universal and there was much illiteracy. In some areas the increase in enrolment was not keeping pace with population growth and up to a half of the age group was not in school. Drop-out and repeating of pupils due to economic and social reasons were high, particularly of girls. Schools were small and trained teachers scarce; the problem of the single teacher or two teacher school with several grades for each teacher remained to be solved. There were, relative to needs, few secondary schools for primary leavers and mention was made of shortages of teachers able to teach science, mathématics and foreign languages. In general, participants reported that there were shortages of books, materials and vidual aids. It was clear, therefore, that to achieve adequate education of the 3 R's, plus progressively to add to the curriculum certain particularly useful elements given local needs, will require more money and other resources together with new approaches to the organisation of education at the local level. This objective poses resource problems but also questions of the most useful methods of work for the administration.

CHAPTER II
WHAT EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IS SUPPOSED TO DO

The participants drew up the elements of a model for the work of educational administration at the local level. They had shown in their papers that in a systems sense there were close interdependencies between education and the socio-economic and political system of society as a whole. The inputs required for the maintenance and development of education are drawn from the system's financial and budgetary resources. The outputs of education, the educated or semi-educated, enter the societal system to fulfil the various rôles necessary for the maintenance and development of society. Thus what educational administration is supposed to do will depend on the goals which society, and in the first place the government, assigns to it and the resources which are made available to education to achieve those goals.

The participants noted that the goals set for education in their countries were ambitious, and particularly so when considering the remote rural areas where, to establish conditions for education which could help offset the gross disadvantage of the children as compared with many urban children, unit and total costs would be high. This consideration led participants to establish a number of criteria for the development of highly disadvantaged rural areas, including financial policy, planning, communications, monitoring and evaluation and the organisation of supply.

The aims of education in Indonesia, as a vital means of national and individual development, include the expansion of educational opportunities, the improvement of quality, the achievement of greater relevance and effectiveness. In Afghanistan education is expected to change attitudes, increase participation of the population in government, increase productivity and health. In India (Bhimtal Block), education is required to equalise employment opportunities, meet the needs of the local environment and serve as an instrument for development. In Bangladesh education is supposed to meet economic and social needs by providing information and skills which may be conducive to increased productivity and a richer social life. Bangladesh being agrarian, it is expected that the educational system will provide the needed agricultural training.

In more concrete terms the goals of reform, to which participants referred in their papers and in discussion included the following: (i) Revision of administrative structure and promotion procedures; (ii) Curriculum revision; (iii) Revision of content of teacher training and re-training; (iv) Rehabilitation of small rural schools; (v) Development of new teachers' guides and student class

books; (vi) Improvement of school supervision to provide guidance as part of inspection; (vii) Extensive construction and remodelling of schools; (viii) Improved parent-teacher contacts with the school, applied nutrition and health, co-operatives' assistance to school.

Interdependence of general and educational development

Participants argued that achievement of the ambitious goals for education was closely linked with the possibility of achieving other policies undertaken by public administration to promote socio-economic development. The highly disadvantaged rural areas were underdeveloped in education because they were generally underdeveloped. It was therefore necessary to make intensive efforts for the overall development of those areas through the improvement of agriculture and development of industry, communications and services so that extreme poverty is eliminated and the population is motivated to take initiatives.

Efforts to improve education could assist general development but they would succeed only to the extent that economic development would be brought about.

It was argued that national authorities should reinforce their policies for investing greater financial resources in the highly disadvantaged rural areas. It should be recognised at the national level that the removal of poverty in those areas was significant for national development since no chain could be stronger than its weakest link and "the development of the lowest in the land was the surest method to ensure the development of all". A policy for removal of inequalities was, however, in contradicition with laisser faire economic doctrine, according to which returns from investment were higher in the cities and in areas of greater cost/efficiency advantage. In these terms the remote rural areas were at "the end of the line". However, the political and human costs of neglect of the poorest areas were becoming evident. It was felt that central government should not only pay more to support development but should also send some of its best administrators and teachers to the remote rural areas to help the local people.

New tasks for administration

In these circumstances it was seen to follow that if economic and educational development at the local level were to be promoted in conditions that were as favourable as possible, the objects of administration and its priority tasks would have to be correspondingly modified. The circular constellation of forces tending to keep poor areas in a state of poverty would have to be broken, with the maximum of external support, by action at the local level. This would mean a new degree of responsibility by local government and the local people.

The object of administration would continue to be the efficient implementation of decisions taken at the centre, but with increased awareness by the centre of local needs. Administration would then have a major new task. It should seek to ensure that communities become more involved in measures which they, the communities, feel to be to their benefit. The guiding principle should be that administration should seek to maximise local production and the use of local resources. It should respect the motivations and aspirations of the local people and stimulate local initiatives

and new enterprises appropriate to the local situation and context. This was a difficult task, if only because local vested interests operated in a way that was often very tyrannical and extremely significant. But without a new attitudinal setting for administration in remote areas it would not be possible to secure their general development on the right lines nor make provision of formal and non-formal education more adequate and appropriate. The essential of the new attitude of administration was seen by one participant to involve: (i) A genuine decentralisation of authority to the local people; (ii) motivating people to development through creation of awareness and building up strong organisations among the poor to enable them to assert themselves; (iii) promoting all education, formal, non-formal and informal as one integrated stream, laying special emphasis on non-formal education and relating education to productivity; (iv) operating a new policy for attracting the best administrators and teaching personnel to the highly disadvantaged rural areas.

Components of the "model"

The model for the new tasks of the district administration, taking account of specifically local needs and the approach outlined above, as elaborated by the various participants, encompassed the following matters:

- The school and its environment.
- Contribution to planning.
- Communications process.
- Monitoring and evaluation.
- Organisation of schools.
- Rôle of principals of schools.
- Staffing and training of personnel for remote districts.
- Supervision.
- Buildings.
- Books and materials.
- Visual aids.

1. The school and its environment

It was argued that the school should be more directly linked with its rural environment, both as regards what is taught and learned and the ways in which the administration co-operates with local communities.

An intensive effort was said to be needed to develop objectives and content of education for the highly disadvantaged areas which were in keeping with their own particular environments. This was said to mean that something other was required than a linear extension of the existing pattern of urban education, namely a new model which fitted the specific needs. The effort to produce a new model would mean in the first place that national people should make a more systematic effort to understand, with participation of the local people, more about development needs and learning needs of remote rural areas and what could be done, given available resources, to

meet those needs through formal and non-formal education. The problem of remote areas lay in poverty, disease and backwardness. So in devising feasible additions to a common national curriculum, national authorities had to pay regard to increasing production and productivity. For these ends, perhaps they should emphasise non-formal education in the first place and also the introduction of some relevant local elements into the formal curriculum phased in a way that allows this to be satisfactorily done.

The guiding principle to be followed by the administration for the improvement of education in remote rural areas should be, it was suggested, to provide opportunities by which local interests and initiatives could express themselves. Central administration should provide an adequate support framework which allowed and encouraged local endeavour. If the administration expected the local community to do something for the school, the school should render services to the community. It was necessary to study what administrative and financial powers could be conferred on the School Management Committee so that it could solve problems on the spot. The school could serve as a community resource centre. It could supply plant, materials, seeds and fertilisers. It could provide non-formal extension learning as well as cultural and recreational activities.

Support by the school for the local community should be matched by support from the local community for the school in building, maintaining and operating the school and in monitoring its work. If the teacher was aware of the community's interest his work was likely to be more thorough. He would be more aware of local sensitivities and be prepared to respond to them.

Participants felt, however, that the school in many villages was an alien artifact. Frequently there was little communication between the school and the community in which it was situated. Where the school was seen as a provision imposed by the government, the gap between the school and the community became larger and where the curriculum of the school did not appear to be related to the local social and physical environment, the gap appeared to be unbridgeable. Yet ways to close the gap must be found and the direct involvement of the local people in the school from the outset could lead to active participation by the whole community in the provision of the school and its support throughout the years as from the time the school was opened. Making the school a part of the community, however, does not necessarily mean that the school must remain at the general standard of the community at large and it was arguable that the school should aim to be a little better in terms of equipment and accommodation than the generality, thus giving a lead to improvements in material well-being of the people. Where small improvements such as Unesco bench tables can reasonably be provided, then they should be provided even if these items are not part of the indigenous culture, since not only are these items useful and improve efficiency within the school and home, but equally importantly are generalisable within the community itself.

It would be wrong, however, to look upon the remote areas as existing solely in isolation. They are part of zones and regions. It was thought that through harnessing the total of human resources to provide support for the rural areas a foundation could be laid for the development of education.

2. Contribution to planning

Participants said that the administration at the local level should formulate proposals for development of education and educational resources within the district. They urged that the national educational plan should be the negotiated aggregate of well prepared local proposals, rather than, and merely, the imposition on the districts of the financial parameters which resulted from a prior general negotiation about national priorities for development. Educational planning should begin at the local level. Problems can be better explored by the local offices in the areas where census and other data were often not available centrally. The districts could formulate what the local community had to say, as for example in Indonesia where local task forces, with representatives of the population, the District Education Office, local government and the local university were experimenting with an improved planning function at the local level. In Korea, the Samur community movement and in Tanzania, the directorate of development at the local level as part of a policy of self reliance, were mentioned as examples of integration of planning activities within districts.

Participants mentioned that within more centralised administrative structures, governments could strengthen local Boards of Education by encouraging the inclusion of local representatives, and ensuring that the Boards discussed all proposals for development. Decisions should be made as near to the action point as possible. Administration should possess the necessary flexibility so that it could react to new problems by adapting its plans to new needs.

The planning work of the district administration was seen to require an increase in the number of surveys of different kinds which district administrations should undertake in co-operation with local representatives. This was believed to be worthwhile since only the local people knew whether the data collected was reliable and whether the conclusions reached as a result of the processing, analysis and interpretation of data were sensible.

Participants said that valuable information was available but was not being put together. The local administration should undertake some solid work on development needs and learning needs in the district. It should include the following in its efforts:[1]

(a) Survey of the physical environment of the district, relief, rivers and streams, communications.

(b) Survey of the distribution of population, the nature of employment and the medium term evolution of both, together with relevant social and cultural facts.

(c) Survey of the existing educational facilities to identify deficiencies if any.

(d) Proposals for the location of institutions and activities for formal and non-formal education.

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1. In addition to these suggestions made by Working Group members, the reader is referred to the research which has been undertaken by IIEP on school location ("the school map") and in particular to the methodological publication "Planning the location of schools: an instrument of educational policy" by J. Hallak.

It was felt that studies of learning needs of children and adults could provide useful guidelines for the formulation of plans and programmes for educational reforms both as regards qualitative and quantitative development. However, it was noted that these should be attempted within the broad national policy framework in relation to the development and maintenance of education.

3. Communications process

Communication and co-ordination are two important elements in the implementation of educational reforms. The centre, which was responsible for national reforms should receive and take account of information on needs at the district level. Effective communication could also enable the operational staff to understand the philosophy underlying educational reforms, the nature of the reforms themselves in detail, the respective rôles in relation to maintenance of the system, the implementation of reforms and the nature of the problems that are likely to crop up in implementation. This sense of awareness and understanding could give the operational staff a certain degree of readiness to meet problems effectively and carry out implementation of reforms at the field level. Likewise education must be co-ordinated not only within the system but also with other departments by maximising returns through using the capabilities of various agencies. This should become mutually reinforcing.

Experiences of most Asian countries had illustrated that the communications process in connection with reforms of the different levels of operation had met with considerable problems. In most countries, education forms the biggest governmental enterprise, comprising thousands of schools, thousands of teachers and other supporting staff and millions of pupils requiring considerable organisational ability. Further, the effective organisation of the reform of education also calls for local participation and hence an administration at the respective levels that communicates efficiently within the system and with the public. The problems of communication with regard to plans and programmes at the operational levels become particularly acute in remote rural areas where transport and communication facilities are mostly inadequate.

Communication of reforms takes place in many forms such as transmission of information materials, briefing meetings, discussions and directions through circular. Most of the problems associated with communication arise particularly when reforms are formulated at the central ministry level without reference to the school and district levels. These problems could be avoided to a considerable extent by obtaining local participation during the plan formulation stage.

The communication gap between the centre and the district could be narrowed if arrangements were made by the Ministry of Education to inform administrators at the different levels, principals and teachers about national policy and plans for education and its reform in terms of what this would mean for their work. Educational personnel rarely have the time to read national documents and to consider just what these mean as regards changes in routine. As to the flow of information upwards from rural areas, it would seem that in many cases, too many individual items of information are sent from the school and district. Reports emanating from the district level and school should be analytical if possible and kept to a minimum. The efforts of the regions and the centre should be concentrated on giving the last man on the rung of the administrative ladder (who is expected to do

the hardest work of implementing innovations through trial and error) as much support as possible. It may not be feasible to put the best men at the bottom, at least for long, but it was suggested that they might be put in regional administrative support centres, as part of their careers, and in addition they might provide messages and advice which could be transmitted by radio.

It was suggested that district administrations should be shown how to carry out a study of the effectiveness of the existing channels of communication as between the district office, the local population, the schools including the most remote ones, the central Ministry and intervening educational authorities and other public administration and institutions within the district. It would seem useful that district education offices should examine the rôle of meetings, visits and mass media as part of the communications process relating to reform.

As regards co-ordination, that is bringing people into a proper relation in order to carry out work, district administration should give it a high priority. It should be understood that co-ordination does not mean that the administrator only forms a view as to what the officials, teachers and the public should do and then expects them as a matter of routine to do it. It means communicating, understanding individual motivations and problems and reaching agreement on work flow and the division of tasks. Past experiences in relation to the implementation of educational reforms in some countries (Indonesia, Bangladesh) seemed to illustrate that ineffective mechanisms of co-ordination, lack of project evaluation review techniques or simple programming arrangements, had led to considerable wastage of resources, duplication of efforts and a lower degree of efficiency than could otherwise have been reached.

Some conditions for improving the situation seemed to be:

(a) the principles and techniques of co-ordination should be communicated by central government to district education officers.

(b) the different functionaries in the various agencies should know their rôles as well as those of their counterparts in other agencies so as to know with whom they should speak and establish possible points of interaction and co-ordination.

(c) district education officers should be able to take the necessary steps to change rôles, assign work and call to account defaulting individuals and agences at the district level in order to make co-ordination effective.

(d) the district education office should review channels of communication within the office and externally as part of efforts to improve communications.

4. Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring was seen as finding out about the reporting on what was happening. Evaluation could mean making a judgment about something or someone summatively (at the end) or formatively, collecting evidence about something or someone while it, or he, was performing in order if necessary to revise certain aspects of performance.

The functioning of the educational system and the implementation of reform were seen to call for a variety of sequential as well as simultaneous actions to be taken by different people.

Educational administrators operating at different levels must therefore know periodically whether actions are taken in a proper manner and at appropriate times by the people concerned. For this purpose it is necessary to introduce a monitoring and evaluation system as an integral part of administration.

Furthermore, it is at the implementation stage that many practical problems and even unforeseen barriers and bottlenecks arise. This is particularly true when a reform is to be introduced in remote and more disadvantaged rural areas. In this context, a monitoring system is necessary so that administrators can identify difficulties as and when they crop up and take prompt and timely action to resolve them. Thus monitoring becomes an important management tool for improving efficiency and effectiveness of administration.

Participants mentioned that some countries in Asia had already introduced a monitoring system in the implementation of educational reforms in order to systematize action at different levels. For example, in a large-scale textbooks project in the Philippines, a monitoring programme had been introduced at different levels. Similarly, the Plan Implementation Bureau in Bangladesh had developed a monitoring system to increase the efficiency of implementing its school construction programme at the local level. This was done by collecting progress reports periodically from the local level and taking corrective measures where progress had not been achieved, to remove bottlenecks in co-operation with relevant ministries. Also as part of the National Adult Education Programme in India, which was a massive project having a target population of about 100 million illiterate youth and adults in the age range 15-35 years, a systematic procedure for monitoring and evaluation of the programme had recently been developed.

Participants recommended that each country should introduce a systematic monitoring programme in its reform projects for the purpose of effective administration of these projects. These would include arrangements for action by local administration. Besides periodical monitoring of progress at the implementation stage, it was necessary to conduct a more comprehensive evaluation of a particular reform from time to time. Such evaluation should take into account achievements and outcomes of the reform, adequacy of inputs and processes, various environmental factors influencing the outcomes, and lessons to be drawn for further improvements in future. For these purposes, it was recommended that a built-in and development-oriented system of evaluation should be adopted for each major reform and at each level, beginning from the plan formulation stage itself. Monitoring should become a part of such a more comprehensive and built-in evaluation system. It should be carried out either by an educational office and school committees or by a team composed of representatives of both internal and external personnel according to the specific requirements of individual projects of reform.

It was also recommended that, as far as the educational system as a whole was concerned, since local evaluations were only a part, research should be carried out on techniques and procedures of monitoring and evaluation of different types of educational reforms with a view to improving reform management and thus optimising achievements and outcomes. The research findings should prove helpful in designing monitoring and evaluation systems that were more functional, practicable and development-oriented.

5. Organisation of the schools

The institutional or school level was seen to be the most critical level of operation for the successful implementation of any educational reform. Hence the school as a unit should become the most significant focus of attention for administrations of education at the district level in their formulation and implementation of national educational reforms

One of the main administrative problems at the present time in remote rural areas was how to ensure the same standard for each school. There was a big difference between those on the periphery and those in the centre of the district. A solution suggested was the organisation of cluster schools to eliminate some of the disparities. A project in Thailand has gathered schools into a cluster to plan their teaching and learning activities together, share resources, special subject teachers and audio-visual materials. In Indonesia too there was an experiment to gather neighbouring schools into units, that is, with a mother school, branch school, distant classes or feeder schools for young children who transfer to larger schools when they are old enough to walk the longer distance. The experiments in Indonesia also included self-learning modules for the higher grades. In Bhimtal Block the proposal was to increase the number of central or mother schools with boarding facilities. Alternatively in Bangladesh where the population was very interested in religion, the religious institutions could be organised to teach the 3 R's for the first three years of school life after which children would transfer to a state school. It was felt that the small school was the only means to bring education to remote areas and experiments were needed to see what systems were feasible and what support services needed to be developed, what standards should be applied, what flexibility in curricula were desirable, and who was to take necessary decisions.

Participants concluded that it was useful to link a cluster of remote rural schools for the purposes of administration and supervision. Such centrally located schools could also serve as resource and extension centres for the school network. They could provide mobile teachers.

Administrators at the local level should have in mind that the teaching/learning process should be seen as part of the problem of organising the school within the local system. The only really effective instrument for influencing the child in the remote rural areas was the environment. It was only by interaction of the individual with the environment that people learned. The rural and urban areas were not two water-tight spheres. The curriculum approach should be from the known to the unknown, the result being that rural people would learn academically as much as the urban but the phasing in of the subjects could be different. One of the main points to be remembered was that the volume of present knowledge was too vast to be communicated in school. The capacity to self-learn should therefore be developed. A prior task for educational administrators was therefore to encourage the extension of "self-learning" methods in the school and teachers should be induced fully to support this development.

6. Rôle of school principals

Participants stressed that local administration should make the most of the possibilities of using school principals in the management of reform. The head of a school or principal is a manager of an institution as opposed to the district education officer who is a manager of a system comprising many schools. Both are concerned with planning, organisation, implementation, direction, supervision and evaluation. To this extent there are similarities in their rôles and functions. However there are variations in terms of their coverage, scale of activities and responsibilities.

The institutional head plays a vital rôle in the administrative machinery by ensuring that the teaching and learning programmes are effectively implemented in his institution. He is not only the manager of his institution but can also be an instructional leader. Over and above these twin capabilities, the head of the institution can be a disciplinarian. In the age of community development, he is also expected to play the rôle of an agent of change.

At this juncture it is perhaps necessary to mention briefly the rôle of the head when an educational reform is to be introduced at the institutional level. First and foremost the head should commit himself to it. He has to understand fully and appreciate not only the reform itself but also the ideas behind it and develop within himself a positive attitude towards the reform. As an instructional leader he should hold discussions with members of his staff in an open manner genuinely sharing with them the primary source(s) of the reform. It is equally necessary for him to disseminate appropriate information about the reform to the community, the parents in particular. In this manner he creates a healthy climate for the implementation of the reform within as well as outside the institution. Needless to say he should prepare the functional and organisational structure of his institution in good time to meet the requirements of the reform. At the same time he should also ensure a system of monitoring and evaluation within his institution (though this might well have already been incorporated in the reform itself), thereby providing a continuous flow of feedback to the district administration and, hopefully, beyond.

As a change agent the head of school is expected to be sensitive to the pulse beat of the community. More often than not he is the best educated person in the community; depending on how he behaves he could perhaps be the most respected as well. He is in a position to influence the community and bring it into close support for the school.

Participants considered that it was necessary to design and implement appropriate training programmes for school principals and other administrative personnel serving in remote rural areas, taking into consideration their specific needs. It was also important that Ministries should design a rational system of promotion for heads of schools. This system had to be devised in such a way as to allow good teachers due for promotion to obtain it and thus improve the backing for the principal in his work of raising the standards of the school, even while remaining assistant teachers.

7. Staffing and Training of educational personnel for remote districts

Participants said that in all countries there were severe constraints on development and priorities had to be defined for the allocation of the limited scarce resources available. The support of teachers in the field must have the highest priority and every effort must be made to improve teacher effectiveness in the classroom. The second priority must be placed on the supply of books and teaching materials to enable the teacher and the pupils to do their work. Buildings facilitate the proper conduct of education but where necessary teaching can take place in mosques, temples and in ordinary houses.

- Provision of teachers in remote districts

Teachers needed a satisfactory career and incentive structure. The most difficult task of all was to encourage teachers to go to the remote areas and remain there for adequate periods of service. Adequate special allowances that more than compensate for the cost of living and disturbance, the provision of a house which is quite essential for women staff, and education allowances, were all important improvements in the conditions of service, but they were essentially peripheral to the main problem of how to motivate teachers to teach in the remote areas. The posting for teachers for two years at a time is a solution, as in Afghanistan, but it does not ensure that teachers go to the areas willingly or that they will work well whilst they are there. In fact, from many countries, the opposite appeared to be the case. However, where there were surpluses of teachers and where teachers were unequally distributed in the districts, some improvement could be obtained by the more equitable distribution of staff.

The disadvantages of the remote rural areas had to be listed and attempts made to correct them. Primarily, the areas and the teachers in them are isolated, both physically and professionally. Physical isolation cannot be solved but much can be done to reduce the sense of professional isolation. If the teacher feels forgotten and his work goes unnoticed then he has only his own professional conscience as a spur to better work and that spur can be blunted so easily in the harsh physical conditions under which he or she works. Regular radio broadcasts and teacher newsletters would be two ways to establish contact with the outside world and would be useful especially if the contacts could be made more personal through the style of the communications themselves. More frequent contact with the inspectors would also help if it was recognised that the inspectors themselves really were competent to teach and had some realistic advice to give to the teachers, and the interest of the administration would become more obvious if there was a systematic follow-up at district level of reports made on each school. Provided that there was an adequate supply of suitably trained and qualified administrative personnel, not only would the follow-up be effective in terms of stimulating the teachers' interest and initiative, but also in ensuring that proper and full use was made of the books, guides and other aids which are provided. The administration could provide more immediate contacts with other schools in the area and if secondary schools or larger primary schools were given responsibilities for remote schools in their sub-districts, the network of support for the teachers would be increased. This scheme is already in operation in the Sind Province of Pakistan and in India and is planned for the

Seti zone of Nepal. In the same way, it could be ensured that the training colleges would have professional interests in the schools and staffing and transport provisions would have to be made to allow for visits to take place in remote areas as frequently as was needed to ensure steady improvement.

A second approach to the provision of teachers for remote areas would be to reconsider the organisation of teacher education. If it was felt that remote areas had sufficient characteristics in common, special courses could be provided to supplement basic training. An alternative might be to include in the basic initial training courses concerned with remote areas in the same way that courses on community development are at present advocated. A second alternative could be to recruit teachers from particular areas for training courses and for those teachers to return to their own areas when qualified. There was the example of Indian experience of training middle-aged men and women from the particular localities and that of Nepal where women teachers are trained at hostels located in the districts.

This alternative has the advantage that where ethnic differences are significant, teachers who go to the remote areas would not find themselves at a cultural disadvantage. They would be more acceptable to the community and would be able more quickly to relate to the work in hand. Undoubtedly each of these proposals would provide teachers better prepared for the remote rural areas and their success was likely to be greater than in the case of those who might be sent there under say, National Service schemes. Yet it would be wrong to anticipate that teachers prepared for remote areas would want or should be expected to stay there throughout their careers. Their service should be recognised for promotion prospects and they should expect normal opportunities for movement to other areas if they so wish.

Another approach could be as in Indonesia and Nepal, to use mobile teacher trainers, who visit the teachers in their schools as frequently as possible. Similarly there might be a pool of peripatetic teachers to assist for special subjects.

- Support of teachers

Teachers should not be expected to pay for in-service training, but at the same time teachers should not always expect increments of pay for attending courses. The circumstances under which changes in status and pay would follow from in-service training would depend upon the reasons why the training was undertaken. It could be that if a new approach in a subject is to be attempted then no additional remuneration would follow from the courses attended. If, however, the training was for a new rôle such as a headmaster, or head of department, then salary changes would be appropriate. This could also apply if teachers who had followed a standard initial course of training underwent a conversion course to become certified or acquired recognised educational qualifications to teach in remote rural areas. This might be considered to be an additional qualification which would lead to a change of status. It can be suggested that unless in-service training is linked to salary increases, teachers will not be motivated and the training will be ineffective. However, if all training is to be linked to salary increases, careful consideration will have to be given to the total increases

in salaries which already form 70-80 per cent of total recurrent education expenditure on school education.

Within the teaching profession there were a number of groups which required special consideration and the unqualified teachers and those in remote areas were two such groups. A profile of untrained teachers may reveal many close to retirement who might be omitted from in-service training. It may also reveal a number who have good academic qualifications or who have been teaching for a long period of time. It may be felt that the requirement for these categories of teachers to undertake in-service training could be waived and the teachers be given permanent qualified status on the basis of the satisfactory quality of work in the classroom. Indeed, regulations could permit teachers the right to apply for qualified status once they have served for a period at least equal to the normal length of training (plus any period of probation). The award would be made on the advice of the head teacher and the inspector and if necessary where the normal qualification is awarded on the basis of an academic as well as a professional qualification, a separate category of teacher could be created. This was a relatively simple change in categories of staff. Where the categorisation of staff was not acceptable and a unified teaching staff was preferred, the newly qualified teacher could be accommodated in a limited section of the unified pay scale. Where it was felt undesirable to grant qualified status without training, candidates could be required to undergo shortened in-service courses. The dimensions of the need for special in-service training require precise measurement and a survey of the proportion of all teaching personnel in positions for which they are not qualified would be valuable. This should be undertaken by the administration of each district.

The organisation of in-service training for upgrading or for curriculum reinforcement must be organised at a district level. Countries could not afford to send teachers on full salary to central institutions for courses. Within the districts there were considerable untapped human resources available to assist in training and these should be called upon, the courses being conducted at suitable institutions within the districts. This would also have the advantage of ensuring that the courses provided will relate to the realities in the districts, especially those obtaining in the remote rural areas.

Two of the people who could contribute most to in-service training were the head teacher and the inspector and their contribution in the remote areas could be particularly valuable. Provided that the head teachers and the inspectors were fully involved and committed to the training being provided for the teachers and in sympathy with the aims of the rural school, they could be a major force in stimulating change. Clearly the head teachers and the inspectors needed to have included in their training courses special training for their respective rôles as agents of in-service training.

Participants concluded that local administrators should be instructed to ensure the appointment of "indigenous" teachers and principals on a remote district basis. They could also provide substantial upgrading of teachers, heads and administrative staff within the district if they received the appropriate support from their higher authorities. It was necessary also that administrative regulations should permit local assistance from qualified people including retired teachers to be enlisted by the District Office for teacher training purposes.

8. Supervision

The supervision of teachers in remote rural areas was seen to be one of the most unsatisfactory features of present-day educational administration. This was a matter of numbers in relation to duties, competence to provide an example in teaching and the follow-up being given to their school reports. For the expansion and improvement of the system the inspectors must be better prepared for the rôle they are expected to perform and they must be given adequate facilities, e. g. transport to carry out their duties. The inspectors must call upon all the human resources of the local community to help develop the schools in the remote areas and the secondary schools represent a vast untapped reservoir of talent in this respect. Similarly the inspector and the district officer should realise the enormous potential for good that lies in the involvement of the local community in the day to day work of the school. Many administrative tasks such as checking on absenteeism of teachers, heads and pupils could be carried out by community representatives.

There is need for a less authoritarian type of supervision with the emphasis being on leadership and guidance as well as control. The inspector plays an important rôle in introducing reforms to the school system. He is both co-ordinator between the school and district administration and the partner of the principal and the teachers in the implementation of reforms.

Participants stressed the fact that the permanent supervisor of teaching and learning in the school was the principal. The inspector had a valuable catalytic function and his visits should inspire action and improvement of work on the part of the principal and the teachers. Both inspectors and heads should receive training for their respective duties. This should include specific ways of involving primary and secondary teachers, heads of other institutions, teacher educators and members of the public in school supervision and the in-service training of teachers. Money spent on effective supervision could be expected to have a substantial multiplier effect.

9. Buildings

As stated, proper buildings greatly assist the conduct of education but where necessary teaching can take place in other buildings, such as mosques or rented rooms, or indeed as in Bangladesh "open space" education can be organised.

Where local communities undertaken the construction and maintenance of their own schools, this encourages the establishment of an effective working partnership between local communities and government authorities. The village people do have considerable technical skills within the context of their physical and cultural environment and their competence should be recognised if local initiative is to be stimulated. The siting and orientation of buildings can be left to local leaders whose experience in house construction is more than adequate for village schools which, in view of the numbers of pupils, would probably not be so much bigger than the ordinary house. Where central government support is provided this might take the form of materials such as doors and windows, the supply of which might have some beneficial effects on design in that adequate access and light would be assured, or transport costs. It was noted in Nepal that building and transport costs rose sharply away from the capital and in the remotest areas were substantially higher. Alternatively,

some support might be provided in the form of food and/or money. The villagers in devoting time to construction will be unable to farm and food would be necessary to offset the loss in production. The money could be used to employ local craftsmen, thus adding to the income of the village and as a by-product, through the experience gained during work on the school, might lead to a general improvement in construction styles in the community at large.

It was thought desirable to provide for the greatest flexibility in the design of schools whilst at the same time providing adequate and appropriate technical support from the central government. This might best take the form of standard designs being available at the district level. Local groups could reasonably be expected to consult the education department before construction took place and to receive the consent of the education authorities to construct. Local communities should be enabled to provide the school they felt to be needed. A possible approach would be to provide for a minimum floor space per pupil and a maximum allowance for financial assistance. Such an approach would not provide a straitjacket for schools and district administrators could allow schools to be built to suit needs and conditions. There are limiting factors in some cases, as for example in Afghanistan and Nepal where the width of classrooms was restricted to 12 feet by the maximum length of timber available. With an appropriate design and some detailed guidance on the size of the school needed in view of the possibilities of teaching outdoors during periods of the year in some countries (in Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, Northern India and Nepal, buildings are used little in spring and autumn), the local community should be able to start the process of building. In the same way, extensions to buildings would require consultation and agreement between all concerned, although it was more likely that central government support would be needed once the initial enthusiasm which provided the original school had been dampened to some extent.

The purpose of encouraging local involvement was not solely to save money: indeed this was only one aspect and not necessarily the most important one. Essentially the development of remote rural areas must come from within, the people being encouraged to find ways to improve their own environment. The problems of development in rural areas are well known to all and particularly so to the people who live there. To provide them with an opportunity to introduce change demonstrates a recognition that the people themselves can direct and control their own development. Each step that is taken may be a small one but should increase the confidence of the people to go further and seek ways forward. With each step should come the pride of achievement and with this the identification of the individual and community with the work undertaken. Schools provided by central government in standard form were sometimes inappropriate and alien constructs in the village milieu. Perhaps architecturally different from the other buildings in the community, the school could sometimes be a visual reminder of external intrusion into village life and might be rejected by the parents and pupils.

A school, designed, built and paid for by the local community will blend into the environment, it will be accepted by the people and will have a greater impact on the work of the pupils themselves and the community outside the school. Having built the school, the villagers are unlikely to allow it to deteriorate and fall into disrepair. Maintenance of buildings is costly and the

more sophisticated the buildings, the more costly they are to maintain. So often good buildings are allowed to decay even when there is a grave shortage of suitable buildings within the community. Vandalised buildings show that people do not care and do not feel that they are responsible for them. Maintenance is an attitude of mind and the more people are directly involved with building construction the more they may be prepared to avoid damage and to undertake repairs. Indeed it would be reasonable to expect that agreements on maintenance could be reached before construction is commenced. Nevertheless there are many schools in serious need of maintenance.

- Furniture

Certain minimum furniture is required in classrooms although this may be confined to a teacher's table and a cupboard. Much can be spent on books and teaching aids and the investment will be lost if there is no adequate storage space in which the items can be stored away from the damp, dust and predators.

If the classroom is dry (and this can be ensured by the insertion of a polythene membrane in the floor during construction) then the pupils probably need no more than a mat to sit upon. This level of provision could accord with the local environment and be quite inexpensive. However, if the school is looked upon as a modernising influence, as has been suggested above, the gradual introduction of simple furniture should be aimed at although not prescribed at the outset, and where local craftsmen are available, money could be made available to sponsor the local production of such furniture. A few benches, desks and additional tables could be supplied initially and plans for the construction of simple display areas using available materials, e. g. bamboo made into shelves, could also be printed in the teachers' guides.

10. Supply of books, materials, teachers' guides and visual aids

- Books

Class textbooks are valuable tools for teaching but their value is very limited if the pupils cannot obtain or do not use them. Tests conducted before publication can show if the texts are intelligible to the pupils for whom they are intended.

The main concerns of administration with textbooks are the shortage of supplies and the very short life of books in some countries, for example, nine months in India. Where books are supplied free of charge generally, the remote rural areas are at no special disadvantage as regards ability to pay but where books must normally be bought by pupils, the remote rural areas should be treated separately and the books provided free. If financial constraints do not permit a general distribution of books free even in the remote areas, then a local community committee could decide who among the needy should receive free books. The aim should be to supply each pupil with his own copy of the textbooks although it is recognised that this is a level of provision that must be worked towards. The care of books can be improved with the use of plastic bags and UNICEF supplies books free in such bags.

The distribution of books presents problems where the books must be conveyed to their final destination by a variety of means with several trans-shipments. The likelihood of damage is considerable and means must be investigated of packaging books, e. g. plastic shrink packaging, at the central

distribution point in numbers appropriate to each school to avoid subsequent handling of individual books. The production of books centrally, or by some combination between government and publishers, will undoubtedly continue and may be justified in terms of costs and control of content and approach. However, local variations of curriculum, within the overall national framework, demands texts suitable for the particular school. It follows, therefore, that means must be found to provide texts locally and this should be possible through the involvement of the district administrators' training colleges, secondary and primary schools. Local means of production using duplicators and small presses should be vigorously investigated by district administration, in particular in relation to provision by the district of in-service training for teachers. The distribution of books may be undertaken appropriately perhaps by the government where the books are provided free since the collection of small quantities of money can in itself be costly. Where books are to be bought by pupils, there is a case for close study of the advantages of the use of traders, especially for the supply of secondary books.

A further suggestion was that where the teachers are required to collect their pay from the district office, they could, at the same time, collect books, although the numbers of books that could be collected on each visit might be relatively small.

- Teachers' guides

Teachers' guides can be valuable aids for the teachers, especially the unqualified, the unsure and the diffident, but as with textbooks, the value of the guides depends on readability and the use made of the guides in group training and regular discussions. No guide can teach a teacher to teach, it can only give ideas on how to teach. The ideas have to be translated into practice, and for this the teacher must be able to understand the guide. The use of the guides needs to be developed and should be closely linked with the conduct of in-service training.

The value of the guides depends on their availability. It is unreasonable to expect teachers to buy the guides themselves and guides must be provided free, preferably one for each teacher, or alternatively within the school, in the library or elsewhere, where teachers can have ready access to them. If there is local differentiation of the curriculum, it would follow that the guides must likewise be differentiated. For this the resources of the districts will have to be mobilised to provide suitable content and methods. It is essential that multiple copies of the books currently in use in both primary and secondary schools should be available in the training colleges, together with the relevant teachers' guides and for those materials to form the basis for part of the college courses.

- Library books

For the immediate future, it was thought unlikely that many primary schools in remote areas will have a library of supplementary materials for the pupils although some steps could be taken in this direction if the school became the local branch of the library. The pupils and the local community could have joint access to the library and in time suitable collections could be established.

Lapsing into illiteracy is probably more closely related to the age that pupils leave school

than to the final grade reached in school and the non-use of literacy in the community speeds the relapse. It follows therefore that literate people in the community should be encouraged to read and this could be attempted through school libraries. The Ministry of Education could provide suitable guidance on the choice and use of books, cataloguing and so on and supply certain books.

Where the educational authorities are unable to provide a wide range of books, there must be available within the school a teachers' library which at the minimum must include copies of the teachers' guides and textbooks, both those currently in use and perhaps also some that are no longer used but which contain valuable background information on which the teacher can draw to extend his knowledge and enrich his lessons. In secondary schools greater efforts need to be made to provide suitable books for both pupils and the public and to include periodicals and newspapers where resources permit. The secondary school could also provide a valuable source for neighbouring schools if it housed a substantial teachers' library of relevant class books, teachers' guides and background material.

11. Teaching aids

The blackboard is the simplest aid and can be painted on the wall. However, a substitute could be a dark grey plastic sheet with a matt finish, now being provided by Unicef. This lightweight aid can be rolled up and stored and does not deteriorate with the weather. Chalk is an essential commodity and must be supplied in adequate quantities.

For other aids, every effort should be made to provide them from the local environment. The Ministry or district administration could draw up lists of aids required for teaching and consideration could be given to those which should be provided centrally, e. g. those that are precise (weights, measures) or can be produced cheaply centrally. The other aids that could be provided locally should be defined locally with the help of staff of schools and colleges. In certain cases it may be possible for pupils themselves to assemble teaching aids. For example, in Nepal pupils make balances using small items available within the community. The making of the balance itself is a valuable learning experience and leads to a greater appreciation of the use to which a balance is put. Moreover, pupils and school can help produce teaching aids for deprived areas. Older primary pupils can make aids for younger pupils, secondary pupils can make aids for the primary schools and schools in more developed areas can use their better resources to provide help for poorer schools. In all these ways, supply of aids can be increased and the spirit of self-reliance and community participation encouraged.

The choice of the aids provides a valuable opportunity for teachers to relate the curriculum to the environment, and identified problems may well be stressed through the provision of aids of quality, e. g. model bridges for spanning difficult valleys, irrigation models and so on.

CHAPTER III
WHAT EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION DOES

Structural and process factors

In their papers and contributions to the discussion, participants expressed the view that education in remote rural areas, in accountability terms where output can be measured against costs, was not yet fulfilling the objectives assigned to it by governments. This was not only a matter of resource shortages and use of resources. It was also a question of organisation. Remote rural areas were "at the end of the line" and their problems were not being dealt with adequately, in part, because of the the limitations in the structure and process of the administration of education. The question was raised as to whether educational organisational systems, which are run on mechanistic lines with patterns of control hierarchically traced, and the duties of each post clearly defined in organisation charts, which seem to work well in stable maintenance conditions, can respond flexibly and efficiently to the need for change. It would seem that the answer was in part a function of the wealth of the country. Where resources were plentiful, as for example in Malaya or Korea, organisation responded and, it would seem, adequately by making extra resources available. Where resources were scarcer, and the organisation cannot supply more, a collegiate system of responsibility, seeking new solutions and improvisations could perhaps be more successful.

Participants referred to the isolation of remote rural areas from the main decisions affecting education, namely the formulation of policy, the operation of the administrative machinery to give effect to decisions about it, and the process of accountability and evaluation relating to the operation of the system. Participants spoke of the routine nature of district administrative work with obedience to rules, elaborate record keeping and avoidance of error being the order of the day rather than analysis and reporting. Reference was made to the fact that district education offices were not asked to communicate with the National Ministry on policy matters and their reports, such as they were, did not become part of a systematic system of national intelligence about the state of education. Moreover the priority of remote rural areas, when Ministries planned the allocation of national resources, was low. As regards implementation, participants noted that the system of finance and control of education at the local level was such that the local people often had to do much for themselves. In any case the structural organisation of education in spatial terms of the different levels of education, meant that the mass of skilled manpower and resources involved

in educational administration rarely reached the districts. In temporal terms, communications and the phasing of resources as between the centre and the districts tended to involve delays.

The organisational charts provided by the participants show that Ministry, State and regional offices tend to be liberally staffed, whereas district offices which have increasing responsibilities in relation to reform are said to be understaffed. Lines of communication between the State and the schools have tended to become too long, having to traverse as many as four intervening tiers. Many important decisions have to wait a long time for approval at the national level and word cannot be completed within the financial year.

The work of the respective levels within the system includes, broadly speaking, four main branches: education, development, inspection and personnel administration and finance. The central Ministry normally formulates policy, fixes regional or State budgets and carries out overall co-ordination of certain matters such as curriculum, teacher training, examinations, fixed investment and so on. The middle level is in charge of implementation, provision of staff, equipment, supervision of secondary and technical education. The district, or lower level prepared statistical reports and requests for development, supervises primary and sometimes secondary education, administers and may pay teachers, and maintains direct relations with the schools and the communities. Participants urged that the spatial allocations of the various functions mentioned above needed review in order to avoid duplication and concentrate staff in the districts.

An unresolved question arose as to whether the remote areas could not best be administered by a separate body within the Ministry of Education, or by a body which included education within a number of measures to encourage economic and social development. At present, education at the district level, seemed normally to have few contacts with other services. The Special Areas Development Programme in Nepal was mentioned in this connection, but it was felt that this involved certain extra grants for education rather than the creation of a new system for the administration of education at the local level. An example from Tanzania of integrated development at the district level was mentioned at the meeting.

On the other hand examples were given from Thailand and Indonesia where the provincial administrative offices have responsibilities for schools in rural areas, and education is administered jointly by representatives of the Ministry of the Interior (or Home Affairs) and Ministry of Education. Educational staff at the district level are few in number compared to officials working for other government agencies. It was felt that the Ministry in charge of finance was not sufficiently concerned with the quality of education. There were sometimes conflicts between different Ministry officials and mistakes in planning, e. g. school buildings left empty.

Participants showed that in all systems represented decisions were taken at a high level on all important matters whereas there were variations as to responsibilities at the local level. In centrally controlled systems, finance, accounting, buildings, teacher recruitment and payment are often administered at State level (Bhimtal Block in India, Korea, Malaysia) or in Thailand and Indonesia by the Ministry of Interior (or Home Affairs), whereas in Nepal, Bangladesh and Arunachal Pradesh, teachers' pay for example is directly administered at the local level.

As regards planning, the main responsibility for preparing proposals lies at the provincial or district level whereas the main decisions and controls, whether financial or the supply of teachers and other resources, are at State or national level. But there are variations in the extent to which planning is based on study at district level. In Kunduz (Afghanistan) it has been decided to establish education offices in each district. The offices are to work with district co-operation committees and provide the provincial office with the facts concerning local needs for teachers and facilities and the problems facing the school system. In Nepal, the District Education Committee, headed by the President of the district Panchayat is responsible for the formulation of district educational development plans, the work being undertaken by the District Education Officer and his staff, within the national policy framework laid down by the central Ministry.

The inspectors, who are the eyes and ears of the State and national ministries, are responsible for school supervision, in-service education and evaluation and many administrative duties. Normally primary inspectors are stationed at the district level. In Anuradhapura (Sri Lanka) each of the Circuit Education Officers has to cover 30 to 40 schools. These activities "are handicapped due to transport and accessibility problems, particularly in schools located in very remote areas". In Nepal, one secondary inspector is stationed in each district but most are based at the regional level. In most cases secondary inspectors work from the provincial or state levels.

Participants showed the district offices as doing what they are asked to do according to the rules and regulations and in many cases doing that well but there are some major constraints. Much of the district staff's time is taken up with supply, personnel management and sending information requested from the Provincial or State Offices. An example from Arunachal Pradesh (supported by other studies) shows that the time devoted to school visits tends to be reduced as a consequence. In some cases, e. g. Bangladesh, the Tehsil (sub-district) education officer is responsible for development, family planning and the distribution of relief so he has not much time for education. District Offices consult school heads on matters such as the administration of teachers, food rations, clothing, school budget and finance and discipline or schools may not be consulted at all (Thailand). In some cases much time is required by the school head to fill in forms. In the Philippines 40 reports are required from school heads annually and some duplication occurs. On the other hand, in Malaysia school heads must teach a minimum of 9 weeks or 270 minutes per week, so the amount of time available for school administration and supervision is rather limited.

In Kunduz attention is being given to improved organisation of the District Office in terms of organisation and methods, report writing, reading and filing of reports, typing, accounts, administration and training of personnel. This appears to be part of a more general approach of trying to improve the effectiveness of district administration in mobilising the population for education.

Local participation

If the participation of heads and teachers in the formulation of policy, or in the decisions about education, seems to be restricted to the provision of information, that of local communities is said in most cases to be limited to making complaints which may go unheeded. For example, in Bhimtal Block,

local officers and people are not involved in planning. This is concentrated in the state headquarters which on the basis of information provided by schools, draws up the budget and gives instructions which are transmitted via the regions and the districts to the blocks. In Bangladesh the Ministry of Education formulates policies and plans. The population is not involved since the attitude is said to be that government takes care of these matters. Each school has a management committee which includes local people, but it can only recommend or lodge complaints. No notice is said to be taken of these. In the North West Frontier Province of Pakistan there are usually no local representative bodies so there is no participation. In Thailand where 97 per cent of expenditure is paid for from the centre, all policies, planning, curriculum and implementation are controlled from the centre. There is no specific concern with needs at the local or provincial levels. There are school boards but they do not meet regularly. Parents are reported to make few inputs. In Arunachal Pradesh the Panchayat's work in education is limited to suggestions for improvement. In Nepal the rôle of the Panchayat and the school co-operation committees has been reduced following the reform of administration at the local level which transferred certain powers from the Panchayat to the District Offices. In Korea each province has an Education Board on which there are five members of the elected provincial assembly. No mention is made of the local level. In Malaysia District Action Committees have a "watchdog function". These Committees are chaired by the respective District Officers, and the members are elected representatives of the State Legislatures and the Federal Parliment, and heads of the various Government Departments in the District. The Education Ministry is represented by the State Education Department. Its main function is to monitor the progress of the development programmes and problem solving on an inter-departmental basis. Most schools have parent-teacher associations.

An interesting study of the way in which the educational bureaucracy, the teachers and the community respectively see education at the local level in the Philippines is included in the study by Professor Manalang which is appended to this report.

Participants made observations on the functioning of the administration in respect of the following matters which concern education in remote rural areas:

- Supply, training and management of teachers
- Supervision
- Supply and use of teachers' guides, books and visual aids
- Buildings

1. Supply, training and management of teachers

Participants said that though there was in general no lack of teachers in urban areas, and on a national basis supply would seem to be in balance with demand, all remote rural areas experienced difficulty in recruiting well qualified and experienced teachers. There is an acute need in most countries for teachers who are able to teach several grades within small schools. In general it would seem to be the policy to appoint two teachers to each school but in the most remote areas single teacher schools are common. There would seem to be particular difficulty in some countries

in finding women teachers since women preferred to live with their families in urban areas, and the supply of teachers who are themselves from remote areas was not sufficient. Mention was made of teachers who had not succeeded in becoming integrated and mastering their loneliness in remote rural areas.

While teachers tend to be young, have secondary education and may have taken the posts as the only ones available, there were considerable variations as between countries in training and incentives given to teachers to go to remote areas. It would seem generally the case that training is of a formal academic character and many changes in curriculum were needed in order to prepare teachers to play a rôle in remote areas as change agents as far as development at the local level was concerned.

In Malaysia, teacher pre-service training was stated to be well organised and adequate. No incentives are given for teaching in remote areas. All teachers are bound to the public educational service for five years after training. Male teachers are usually posted to remote areas and housing is provided. In Indonesia, the area of Central Kalimantan is obliged to obtain teachers from other regions although local married women teachers are a cause of overstaffing in the towns. In the two blocks studied in India the majority of teachers have passed the matriculation exam but are untrained. Trained teachers, even though unemployed, are unwilling to go to the hill districts. A number of incentives are provided for teachers to improve their qualifications and teachers from remote areas are "required to undergo training on completing a minimum service of two years in the field". In Kunduz (Afghanistan), most teachers are former 9th and 10th grade pupils from secondary schools. In Thailand 16 per cent of all rural primary teachers are unqualified, 12 per cent are qualified to teach infants at kindergarten level, 39 per cent have a certificate in education involving two years of study after grade 10, 31 per cent a "4 year" diploma and 2 per cent a bachelor's degree or higher. In Korea a roughly analogous qualifications pattern as in Thailand exists, with the youngest and less qualified teachers going to the remote areas in order to benefit from the special allowances and promotion possibilities. In the Philippines, it was reported to be difficult to recruit and retain teachers and a third were unqualified. In Sri Lanka the average class size was 21 compared with 49 in urban areas. The teachers were the less experienced, mainly resident outside the areas and frequently absent from the school.

A number of participants mentioned that there were problems of recruitment due to the linguistic requirements for teaching in remote rural areas. They also pointed to the need to improve the training of heads (often second teachers) and the activity of district administrative staff, in order to improve teacher discipline. It seemed also that teachers in a number of countries are frequently absent from the schools on account of their fund raising, production, government and development duties (Philippines, Indonesia, Anuradhapura).

The participants reported that in-service training is usually provided in urban areas. This raised financial as well as logistic problems for rural district authorities in some cases. Normally in-service training is organised during vacations. Participation and the payment of the relevant costs is decided by the district or State Directors of Education. The value of in-service training

at the local level varies according to the severity of the problems. In Malaysia, it was reported that owing to the shortage of qualified instructors at the local level, all in-service programmes were conducted centrally at the various teacher training institutions and the State Education offices. Packages of self-instructional units were also being developed for the teaching of mathematics, science, and languages, together with self evaluative questionnaires. In Central Kalimantan, all teachers have attended 12 day courses, once or twice a year in mathematics, languages and social science. In Nepal, in addition to long in-service courses in the national capital or other teacher training colleges, shorter courses to familiarise untrained teachers with the teachers' guide or to provide one or two days intensive subject instruction have been carried out at district level. In Afghanistan a more intensive training rôle has been assigned to secondary schools with a cluster of schools and teachers under the responsibility of each school.

Participants referred to plans to undertake more prolonged vacation courses with the support of the inspectorate and mobile training teams from teacher training colleges to provide really substantial instruction and upgrading for the teachers. In addition weekly meetings between teachers and inspectors, or well qualified teachers, with the discussion and distribution of guide materials relating to the coming week's school work were mentioned as being useful. Such in-service training activities had been grouped around teachers' resource centres.

2. Supervision

Supervision was seen to form a very significant component of educational administration. It involves pedagogical inspection as well as administrative inspection of the school and its arrangements. It seeks to ensure that the desired educational objectives are achieved through the optimum utilisation of the resources made available for the various purposes. Educational supervision as currently conceived is concerned with the provision of professional guidance and support to practising teachers and heads in order to improve the teaching-learning situation. However, most of the reports submitted by the participants seem to highlight the fact that supervisors are preoccupied with routine administrative inspections such as checking attendance registers, inventories and time-tables, etc.

The organisation of educational inspection/supervision of countries in the Asian region can be broadly classified under the following:

Central level:	Malaysia, Indonesia
Provincial level:	Bangladesh, Republic of Korea and Thailand
District level:	India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan and Nepal

Educational supervision programmes are confronted with the following problems:

- inadequate availability of supervisory staff, budget and transport facilities
- physical barriers due to difficulties of terrain and accessibility
- limited time available for the supervisory personnel to provide professional support to teachers due to heavy involvement in routine administrative functions
- inadequate competence and experience of supervisory personnel.

As far as administrative inspection was concerned, participants expressed regret that it was

necessary. But corruption, theft, absenteeism, idleness and injustice had been found to exist within the educational system and these failings had to be detected and remedied. Moreover there were many matters concerning accounts, statistics, enrolments, probation and posting of teachers, salary and pension questions, relations with local authorities and so on which had to be systematically dealt with. Some participants argued that local administrators inevitably became corrupt and therefore administrative inspection should proceed from the province or state level. Other participants held the view that the only way to eliminate corruption was to encourage the participation of local people, rather than a few representatives nominated from above, in the supervision of school administration at the local and district levels.

If it is true that some sort of supervision exists over matters such as money, administration of teachers and heads, routine returns and reports, it would seem that guidance of schools based on inspection tends to be lacking. In Malaysia where the head is considered to have the main responsibility for the supervision of the school, the Federal Inspectorate though small in size also manages to visit schools in remote areas though not at the desired frequency. In Bangladesh, each inspector from the divisional level is responsible for from 100 to 300 schools. In Bhimtal Block visits made by inspectors are described as "perfunctory". In Afghanistan, inspection is being reorganised at the district level with inspection activities and teaching resources being based on central secondary schools where possible. In Central Kalimantan the regulations stipulate that visits should take place three times a year but finance does not allow this. In the Philippines, there is one supervisor for 16 schools but schools in difficult terrain were said not to be visited. In Korea "the inspection of schools in remote rural areas has not contributed much to the improvement of teaching because inspectors cannot visit the schools and consult with the teachers often. Even when they visited the schools, they found poor conditions of education compared with those in urban areas. They are trying to put emphasis on encouraging the teachers to keep on with their jobs rather than inspecting and consulting them to improve the quality of teaching". In Thailand, since there are a small number of supervisors in comparison to a great number of schools, it is impossible for them to visit a school once a year. Moreover since inspectors are under the control of the Ministry of Education and the schools are controlled by the Provincial Administrative Organisation and the municipalities, inspection is administratively rather complicated to arrange. In North West Frontier Province (Pakistan) "the inspection of schools in far flung areas is carried out very rarely. Paperwork connected with personnel matters consumes so much of the time of the Inspectors that hardly enough is left for inspection. The inspection, whenever undertaken, is managed as per traditional style. The Inspector leaves no doubt as to the authority that he commands. An inspection is still considered to be an occasion to exhibit dictatorial attitudes, excessive use of rank and pompous authority. Resort is often made to destructive criticism and teachers are criticised in front of the children. Multiple standards are exhibited and there are too many complaints of favouritism shown to individual teachers. Inspectors appear to perform no useful function except to show to what extent the rules and regulations have been followed. The trouble with the Inspectors is that they have not been properly trained for the job".

Participants pointed out that it was not only important to consider how often inspectors visited schools and what they did when they visited them. It was also necessary to pay attention to the feedback and monitoring process. What happened to the inspectors' reports, at least some of which were good and useful attempts to help improve the teaching/learning process and/or the administration of the school? In some cases the heads received copies of reports, in others they did not. There was also considerable variation of practice as regards reading, digesting, acting upon, filing and following up the reports at the district or higher levels. Inspectors' reports in some cases were a very useful element in the reports on education sent to higher authorities. In other cases they were not, if only because reports of a monitoring type were not being sent.

3. Supply and use of teachers' guides, books and visual aids

Teachers' guides

Teachers' guides were seen by participants to be particularly important in remote areas where there was a proportion of untrained teachers who required help in the planning of their lessons. Teachers could normally use the guide more effectively if in-service training in their use was organised by inspectors, heads and experienced teachers. In some cases where guides had been distributed without training and discussion on their use, teachers had not been able to use the guide effectively.

In some countries guides are distributed without charge. In others teachers are required to pay for them. They are supplied by different bodies and the processes of consultation in their preparation would seem to have involved a number of different professional groups. In Arunachal Pradesh workbooks and teachers' guides are supplied by the National Council of Education. In Korea they are produced by the Korean Educational Development and Innovation programme. In Thailand teachers' handbooks are produced and distributed by the Department of Educational Techniques of the Ministry of Education. In Kunduz no guides were available so teachers keep, and share, notes received during their own training and these are sometimes out of date.

Books

In the countries represented, books are produced centrally. Considerable progress has been made, with the help of UNICEF, in the production and distribution of books for the remote areas.

Participants said that since the prices of school books had to be kept low, the books did not always last the school year, and diagrams, colour and presentation could be improved. Participants mentioned efforts now being made to produce textbooks in local languages, including science and social science (Arunachal Pradesh and Kunduz).

In nearly all countries represented at the seminar, there were problems of distribution. Where the state distributes books free, it had been found difficult to distribute new books on time particularly where the authorities, as a result of reform had introduced new curricula. Where books are distributed through the school system, storekeepers have to plan their visits to district warehouses and try to avoid damage to books when they are carried by porters or mules. Where books are sold by dealers, a small proportion being given free to poor families (Thailand, North West Frontier Province, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka) dealers may not find it worthwhile to sell only one or two cheap

books, and for this reason books are not always to be found in the remote rural areas at the beginning of the school year.

Generally, participants reported that there were no libraries for primary teachers or pupils, but that secondary teachers usually were able to consult a reference library. In one country (Malaysia) grants were systematically given for primary and secondary libraries for pupils, but the supply of books and the availability of bookshelf space in the older school buildings were said to be problems. Malaysia also provides a recommended list of books for primary and secondary school libraries.

Audio-visual aids

If a distinction may be made between what the government distributes and what teachers and pupils make in the classroom, participants mentioned that governments had produced and distributed useful maps, charts and diagrams (Central Kalimantan, Kunduz) but that locally produced aids could be much better if the teachers were able to produce them and the children did more for themselves.

It was said that school budgets did not allow the purchase of local materials and labour for visual aids (Korea, North West Frontier Province) and in the Philippines teachers were not only obliged to buy materials out of their own salaries, but they were allowed only three boxes of chalk per term. In Kunduz, the chalk is of poor quality. In Auradhapura (Sri Lanka) chalk and stationery are lacking in rural, as distinct from urban, areas. In Arunachal Pradesh, teaching aids are prepared in the teacher training institutes and given to the teachers when they undergo training.

4. Buildings

The provision of buildings can exemplify differing degrees of responsibility of the local and national bodies and there are at present at least three approaches: (i) Where the buildings are financed and constructed by central government; (ii) where the buildings are financed by central government but constructed by the community; (iii) where the buildings are financed and constructed by the local community.

- Centrally financed and constructed

The advantage of central government provision is that it relieves the community of the responsibility of undertaking time-consuming projects and it ensures where there are adequate central resources that such a school is made available. Many countries, and especially Malaysia and Korea, have made significant progress in the provision of schools and the rôle of agencies outside the local community should not be minimised. The construction of schools by the community can be a lengthy process even after the site and design have been agreed and there may be delays during construction because of other more urgent needs such as the production of food. It may take a considerable period of preparation before central government commences work but hopefully perhaps once the work is under way, it will go ahead without undue delay. However, the disadvantages of central government building schools can be considerable. Where there are established ideas of what a basic school should be, e. g. the two-classroom school in Pakistan, which has to be adhered to, there is little opportunity

for adjustments to local needs and the possible financial gains from standardised construction may be outweighed by over provision. Moreover, there is evidence that even for schools of standard design, the construction costs may rise significantly, as in Thailand, when central government takes over responsibility for construction from the local community. The Public Works Departments are rarely able to undertake the construction of schools, especially the smaller schools that are likely to be needed in remote rural areas and where there is to be a large scale programme for the provision of small schools, a government is the more likely to have to resort to contractors who may demand considerable profit margins. A further difficulty may arise over the siting of individual schools. Where villages are remote and there are considerable difficulties of access, a contractor may be prepared to undertake the work only if the school is sited on a road. Accordingly, the contractor's priorities could outweigh other considerations of the more satisfactory location of schools as viewed by the local people. The siting of schools on political grounds is equally unsatisfactory and factors such as the availability of water and land for planting should be more significant indicators of an appropriate site.

Moreover, the standard design may prove dysfunctional in certain conditions. While a tin roof may reduce maintenance costs, it can make the school intolerably uncomfortable in the hot season and unusable in the rainy season.

A further difficulty arises over the relationships between the Ministry of Education on the one hand and the Architects Department on the other. Architects Departments rarely have knowledge of the working conditions of schools nor of the facilities that are required. Whilst the architects do not feel obliged to pay attention to the demands of teachers, there is little room for progress in the design of schools. If the Ministry of Education, however, had within its own structure a school building unit which included architects and other professionals such as engineers, then there would be increased possibilities for satisfactory designs emerging which would provide for greater diversity in the use of the provision that is made.

- Centrally financed and locally constructed

This approach relieves the local community of responsibility for raising the money for the construction of the school by some type of direct levy, although the community will be contributing to the costs indirectly through taxation. Once the community has agreed to undertake the work then perhaps some of the disadvantages of the first approach can be overcome. For example, the siting of the school can be agreed between all concerned and where the community is required to allocate land for the school, as in Pakistan, Bangladesh and Indonesia, then the people can exert a strong influence on the building programme. One main problem, however, arises over the contracting of the work. There are few people available in the villages who can spare the time or energy and the work will have to be put out to tender. This is also the case where the construction of the school will require techniques not commonly practised in the village. Central government attempts to allocate contracts for local small scale works are not generally successful either for new constructions or maintenance and attempts have been made in Pakistan to give increasing responsibility to the headmaster for engaging and paying local people to undertake the work.

- Locally financed and locally constructed

There are few examples where no central finance is provided for capital construction of schools at either primary or secondary levels, but one is Nepal (except for areas of special deprivation). However, it can be said that there are many examples where local communities have played a major rôle in both the collection of adequate funds and the physical construction of schools and this is particularly the case where there had been no school previously.

A consequence of local influence has been in the past that schools have tended in some areas to be located without planning, so that a proportion of the pupils have had to walk unreasonable distances to school. In some countries, district authorities, with UNICEF support, are now providing encouragement so that the principles of school mapping and rational school location are respected.

In Arunachal Pradesh, it was reported that there is a huge backlog of school building of a semi-permanent or permanent type, which is the responsibility of the Public Works Department. Meanwhile primary school buildings of the ordinary "Basha" type are built initially by the villagers on a self-help basis and maintained by them "for three or four years" before being taken over by the Department of Education for maintenance or for replacement by better buildings. In some locations materials like cement and roofing sheets are provided by the territory administration and modified and improved "Basha" type buildings are put up by the agricultural engineers. Residential schools are needed. Furniture is supplied by the authorities.

In Manipur (see Bhimtal Block) the cost of building was brought down considerably where school buildings were built with the Government providing and erecting the metal parts of the structure while the local community provided the wooden plank walling with local skills and materials and did the earth work up to plinth level "under the expert guidance of the Central Building Research Institute". In general, local participation is insufficient to ensure building and maintenance of schools because of the scattered distribution of population and poverty.

In Central Kalimantan, where the authorities build schools and the local people maintain them, it was reported that most of the buildings were old and badly in need of repair. All have some kind of school yard, but only two out of twenty were planted with flowers or cassava. In the wet season most school yards and some school buildings were flooded.

In Kunduz (Afghanistan), village schools were normally of the 3 classes per teacher type and often conducted in mosques. At least half the schools have no buildings of their own. Many of the buildings are not well constructed, "made of mud and brick and awfully damp". Thirty seven per cent of school buildings are used for double shift programmes. The Government is making efforts to promote "educational development throughout the country so that in the near future there will be decent buildings with all the necessary facilities". There were no precise indications about the ways in which local participation will contribute to improvement.

In Paalaman (Philippines), the two teacher, four grade primary school for 50 pupils stands in the heart of the community, on a semi-level open area. It is about the size of a garage fit to accommodate one car, its walls made of dried coconut tree leaves and its roof of galvanised iron sheets. It was constructed by the villagers themselves since the foot trail for those who attend

classes in the central school was judged too hazardous for younger children of 7 to 10 years. The school building is divided into two rooms, two blackboards separating them in the middle. The earthen floor turns to mud in the rainy season. There were 11 desks for 30 pupils.

In Bangladesh in remote rural areas there are on average two primary schools for every three villages. The condition of many schools is deplorable. Many have earth floors and thatched roofs with bamboo fencing for walls. Some schools have broken doors and windows while others have none. Owing to lack of benches, some students have to stand or sit on the floor. There are many open air schools without buildings. Following the nationalisation of 90 per cent of primary schools in 1974, the activity of school management committees in improving and maintaining school buildings appears to have been reduced - "local matbars (influential persons) who are members of the committees take very little interest".

In Anuradhapura (Sri Lanka), the central Ministry provides funds for school buildings. Forty per cent of the total number of schools in 1975 were either semi-permanent or temporary. Buildings are in a delapidated condition and are poorly maintained due to inadequacy of funds.

In Nepal where local people are responsible for building and maintaining schools and furniture, the main problems are to find the voluntary labour in view of requirements for other purposes and to pay for skilled labour of carpenters given that money is scarce. The Government has provided roofs for schools in SADP areas with UNICEF support.

In Korea and Malaysia buildings and furniture are paid for out of Ministry of Education budget funds. In Korea the Provincial Board of Education is responsible for planning and implementation. Buildings are generally adequate and the budget for furniture and equipment is being increased. In Malaysia, the Development Division of the Ministry, through the Public Works Department provided buildings and equipment for the schools in remote rural areas. Delays in construction, rising costs and shortage of development staff at the State level were cited as reasons for slow progress of the building programmes. There is no public participation in school building programmes in Malaysia.

CHAPTER IV
CONCLUSIONS
by Raymond F. Lyons

Since the meeting reached no formal conclusions, these observations represent a personal view of what some of the main outcomes of the discussion seem to have been. They refer to the relations between the district and the national level in the formulation of objectives for development and reform, local administration to implement reform, and some topics for further study.

- Formulation of objectives for education in highly disadvantaged rural areas

The meeting provided an opportunity for a discussion and exchange of experience which was at times rich in the plenary sessions, working groups and through circulation of professional papers. It showed that the problem of the organisation of educational development in remote rural areas in the context of reform, has become, in principle, a matter of importance to the Governments of the Asian countries from which the participants were drawn. It also showed that there are a considerable variety of approaches, of structures and of methods of administration and of planning, since the countries concerned are characterised by different objectives for development, various aims for the reform of formal and non-formal education and diversity in their political systems.

The essential problem to which discussion leads back is that to break the vicious cycle of poverty and ignorance linking inadequate productivity with a low level of social well being, it seems desirable that, given and within their different frameworks, governments should reinforce efforts currently being made, in finance and human resources, to promote the development of the highly disadvantaged areas. This is a matter of formulating and taking the right decisions at the centre, appropriate to local situations and contexts and implementing them, with increased resources from the centre, in conditions whereby the local people are motivated to participate in their implementation. It seems still rather premature, given the isolation one from the other of representatives of the various Ministries and agencies at all levels, in some countries, to speak of a co-ordinated development policy in highly disadvantaged areas. But this would seem to be an objective towards which countries should move.

Meanwhile these areas are very poor and communications with them extremely difficult. The problem is that education, both formal and non-formal should contribute increasingly to the needs of the local population. This is a matter requiring action by the authorities both at national

and sub-national levels, particularly the district level, in order to create an ever more useful set of interdependencies between them as regards the planning and implementation of reform and taking concrete actions that improve life and education in remote rural areas.

While it is agreed in principle that education cannot be spoken about in isolation from other development activities, this appears to be the situation in most countries as far as formal education is concerned. It is therefore important that non-formal and informal education should also be developed for economic as well as cultural reasons. But the question remains whether the staff of educational systems, the administrators and the teachers, are yet in a position to provide the main and most needed inputs into non-formal education and development activities. Nor is it clear what those inputs should be or how best non-formal education, which is linked to production and to cultural needs of adults, should be planned and implemented. It would seem therefore that much further thought is needed in order to see how existing systems of formal education can make a greater contribution to non-formal and informal education and to development, and in what ways national policies can help this process.

As regards formal education itself, national authorities should take steps to ensure that there is a greater relationship between what happens in the schools and the life of the community. This does not mean that from the seminar a conclusion emerged that there should be dualism in respect of education provided in urban and rural areas respectively. It was a matter of making an intensive effort to develop objectives and content of education for highly disadvantaged areas which are in keeping with their own particular environment. At present education in remote rural areas is "urban education conducted with greater inefficienty". Some elements of the curriculum in remote rural areas, the 3R's in primary education for example, will continue to correspond in schools in highly disadvantaged areas with what is taught in urban schools. The parents want this to be so. But the objective should be, by taking all possible actions, to remedy the gross deficiencies of education that prevail at present, to conduct the teaching/learning process as efficiently or more efficiently than in the urban areas. In addition, it seems necessary that national and state authorities, those who are responsible for the conception, formulation and research on educational reform, should make a more systematic effort to understand the priorities, resources, special problems and constraints of remote rural areas. Progressively, with the participation of the local people, new elements in the school programme corresponding to the life and needs of the community should be introduced as a result of a much needed effort by national authorities and experts to co-operate with teachers and the population at the local level. It cannot be expected that local people should design the school curricula. But they could be much more involved in the school if they felt that it was in their interests to do so. The conditions under which local people can show initiatives in the running of the school system and local enterprises generally seem to be a function of the prevailing social and administrative structure, the balance of power between the élite and the poor, and the ways in which national authorities create the conditions for voluntary or induced participation. Depending on the political circumstances, participation can range from, for example, the creation of local study groups to participation in transforming with the support of the state, the

structure, methods of society, production and education at the local level. It would seem therefore desirable that administration should have as one of its aims the efficient implementation of decisions taken at the centre in respect of reform and the mobilisation of local communities for that purpose.

But there would seem to be two limiting conditions. First, that the national authorities should be much better informed, through improved monitoring at the local and other levels about the needs and problems of education and should be determined to improve the situation. Second, that the relationship between local administration and the local community should involve the latter as closely as possible in the operation of the school system, given prevailing social and political conditions in the remote rural areas. This is a top-down "but" approach, which will need to be adopted if any advance is to be made in areas where resources are scarce.

If the administration is to improve its understanding of the educational needs of remote rural areas and follow the implementation of reform more efficiently, it seems important that it should in some countries monitor education better. This does not mean that teachers, heads, inspectors and administrators who are already obliged to complete a large number of forms should be asked to complete even more. The first requirement seems to be that the Ministry of Education, as part of the process of formulating, deciding about and planning reform, should indicate the matters concerning needs for education, the operation of the school system, achievement of plans and objectives on which it requires reports in order to prepare plans and action. It should indicate how reports should be prepared, transmitted and analysed. The establishment of a useful process of monitoring would represent a quite revolutionary change in some countries, it being understood that communications in a very concrete sense, i.e. telephone, telegraph, transport and mail, need to be improved as a first priority.

At the district level the establishment of more adequate communications and monitoring means that district officers should ensure that inspectors' reports on schools are adequate, that they read them all and that the reports are properly filed and followed up. Certain other statistical and evaluative material is required from the schools. These reports together with the results of meetings, visits and discussions organised by the district officers form the basis for analytical and evaluative monitoring by the district officer to regional or state offices, together with the analysis of statistical forms. It would seem that this sytematic flow of assessment and information from below and its effective study and utilisation at national level is required in order that educational reform should succeed.

In this connection, the attitudes of administrators may not always be conducive to improve communications between district and national levels. At the district level administrators who are required, as their main task to carry out orders efficiently and obediently need to become more aware of the issues involved in educational change and understand how to act as a responsible monitor and agent of progress to achieve it. It is important to know what changes in their conditions would be helpful for this purpose. At the national level, those responsible for the formulation and implementation of reform might perhaps also change their attitudes. They might become more concerned with national reality and its thorough diagnosis. They might use the administration to study reality

and needs for action and change, rather than seek automatically to transpose to the national educational system patterns and procedures learned from abroad or from the proceeding of groups set up in isolation from the administration. It is necessary that the administration at the local level should feel involved in, and in sympathy with what the national authorities are attempting to do. This is also a question of the arrangements made for planning the precise relationships between district, state and national administrations in the planning process.

Administration at the local level to implement reform

With the exception of one or possibly two countries represented at the seminar, the planning of reform at the national level in terms of the logistics of supply of different resources, quantity, quality and timing has proved insufficient to achieve provision of adequate education in the remote rural areas. Progress has been made, but the planning and phasing over time of the various programmes (teacher training and re-training, organisation of inspection and administrative services, buildings, books, materials and visual aids) has not been explicit or a sufficient guide to what should be done to implement national decisions on reform. There have been discrepancies between decisions taken by Governments to introduce reforms within a defined period and their implementation of programmes at the national and, still more, remote area levels. These discrepancies may be due to shortages of finance and resources because of decisions about allocation as between objectives and regions, to problems of infrastructure, i. e. control, decision making and responsibilities for planning, to inadequate political determination to achieve results or in some cases to shortages of trained personnel. In highly disadvantaged areas all four causes apply. It may be concluded from the deliberations of the seminar that administrations should review the possibility of taking some or all of the following steps so that these areas receive a high priority for achieving the programmes involved in reform.

Administrative personnel

There would seem to be relatively many trained personnel at national and state administrative levels and few at local levels. The former personnel rarely visit the local level. The most capable administrators are not necessarily required as part of their careers to serve in remote rural areas. Administrators who are from those areas may have no incentive to return to them. Consequently an effort should be made so that capable staff from national and sub-national levels are available to a greater extent to assist in the work of the remote area administrations and to help solve the most pressing problems of teacher support, improved organisation and methods of administration, and co-operation with the local population. Since the remote areas are, in fact, isolated and difficult to get to any decision to increase the participation of national and regional staff in work at the district level will mean that administrations will have to face to a growing extent the personnel and training problems involved in the movement of such staff to the districts.

The training and updating of teachers

The meeting showed that teachers are in general underutilised in remote areas, in terms of time devoted to teaching. A substantial proportion of the teaching force is untrained and consequently its earnings are low and wastage from the teaching profession is high. In addition, there are shortages of subject specialists. The pre-service training of teachers may not prepare them to play a rôle in community life. It is necessary that Ministries should review the adequacy of the pre-service professional preparation of new teachers, and the scale of teacher training programmes, in the light of the need to implement reforms. It is equally urgent that arrangements at local level to provide in-service training should be intensified. Teachers' vacations frequently coincide with unfavourable weather conditions when travel to cities is difficult. Attendance at courses in the cities is more expensive. It would seem that initiatives taken in a number of countries to bring staff from the colleges and regional educational offices to the districts, to work with inspectors, officials, heads and teachers on intensive training of untrained teachers have proved useful and should be intensified. The relative advantages of teachers attendance at district courses or at the teacher training colleges as part of a policy to certificate the untrained need to be studied.

Organisation of inspection

At present there are not enough inspectors at district level to provide advice and guidance to heads and teachers as well as perform the administrative tasks which district or state offices ask them to carry out. Inspectors have not received adequate training for their work. Neither have the school heads who should be capable of administering the schools and giving professional leadership to the teachers. It is therefore necessary that the district offices should employ new methods to reach and help the teachers. These would include improved training for inspectors and heads, participation of heads of larger institutions and teachers in the teacher support process, the establishment of teaching resource centres and improved contacts with the local population. The representatives and clerical staff of the community should undertake certain administrative tasks which at present are the duty of the inspectorate and play a greater rôle in the running of the schools.

Buildings

The meeting gave rise to two objectives. The first, that the school building should be better than the other buildings in the village and should represent a centre of progress and knowledge of all types in the village. The second, that teachers, books and materials were more important than buildings, and where the population and the administration were too poor to provide a building, education should be undertaken nonetheless. The task of the local administration is therefore in the first instance to take all possible steps to provide education, and wherever it can be done to promote school construction, through close co-operation with the local population. State and national authorities should provide assistance in the form of materials which require monetary expenditure such as roofs, windows and doors, desks and benches as well as certain technical guidance.

Books, materials and visual aids

The district offices should be in a position to ensure that library kits for teachers and pupils respectively, school books, teachers' guides and roneoed materials and visual aids are supplied and are used well by the schools. In addition, teachers themselves should be encouraged to produce more visual aids and teaching materials. At present teachers and pupils obtain these items with varying success through many different channels and procedures. There are strong arguments in favour of the district offices being responsible for their supply, and supervision of their use. In this way they could contribute more effectively to the implementation of the national programmes.

It may be concluded that the structure and staffing at the district level should be studied with a view to improving the capacity of district officers to make the best use of available resources. If national policy can be to give greater priority to highly disadvantaged areas help from outside the district will be increased. But conditions of terrain being difficult and the population, and many teachers, being mainly poor, a major task of the administration where resources from outside are scarce, will be to find ways to motivate all the population to support education, and for the school to support the population, so that the objectives of reform can be formulated with their accord and implemented with their support.

It is not possible to improve the administration of education without improving district administration generally. With this proviso in mind, the seminar proceedings showed that the structure of educational administration at the district level needs to be strengthened and in some cases control simplified, so that functions and personnel to perform them (public relations, inspection, financial control and payments, school and teacher administration) are more adequately organised at the local level in co-operation with local people. Communications between the district and the region need to be improved and the region needs to study the district with great care. Career conditions of staff serving in remote areas require review so as to improve morale and performance. Able people should serve there. At the district and regional levels adequate training of staff should be arranged in organisation and methods, including planning, office management and ways of better serving the local people in providing more adequate education corresponding to their needs. Administration at the local level must successfully adopt new rôles and develop its abilities if the implementation of reform of education is to succeed.

Some topics for further study

Discussions at the expert meeting, as concern the need for research, may be summarised as between proposals made by participants for a sharper focus on remote areas and their organisational problems and on the national and regional implications of those problems.

At the district level, participants suggested that further studies should be made of the methods of diagnosis of administrative action as regards demand for education and the different components of supply. Demand has been taken too much for granted. Drop out and the functioning of the educational system need deeper study. It was particularly necessary to examine community initiatives in both demand and supply.

As regards supply, it was suggested that much work should be done in order to investigate ways in which the single or two-teacher school might become more effective as a reform agent. The lessons of the outstanding work being done in the region by Unesco in connection with school building and use should be written down in this connection.

Concerning teacher support, participants urged that in the context of reform it was important to study and analyse the various individual components which could make up an adequate support effort at the district level. The supply of administrative supervision together with assessment and guidance from inspectors and other professional people (secondary and teacher training institutions) in the district. The rôle of the heads of schools in providing professional leadership in the school. Organisation of in-service training of teachers. Supply and use of books, materials visual aids and teachers' guides.

Each of the supply factors should be seen in its national and regional aspect as far as organisation and planning are concerned. Among priorities for research, participants mentioned the organisation of pre-service training and re-training in relation to reform, the work of the inspectorate, and supply of the items required at the district level.

The meeting had shown that problems of communications between the respective levels of the school system and between the school system and other systems, and with the public, and of reporting (monitoring) were very relevant. Task oriented research was needed in order to analyse ways in which problems of decision making in respect of policy making, planning and programming, and implementation might be approached. The study of Organisation and Methods was recommended, including a detailed examination of the forms and procedures required for monitoring and evaluation of educational reform.

It was suggested that Unesco Regional Offices and other bodies should establish annotated inventories of research studies carried out in countries of the Asian region on administration of education in remote rural areas.

Participants emphasised, in conclusion, that administratively, and substantively, education in remote areas of poverty and isolation was itself isolated from other development activities and objectives. Study of the rôle of the school among other agencies, in adult education and in economic and social development should be undertaken energetically in the future.

Appendix A
OUTLINE OF PAPER ON "ORGANISATION OF EDUCATION IN REMOTE RURAL AREAS"

Object

The aim of the paper is to provide an analysis, within a given national framework, of what the authorities have been and are seeking to do in respect of the formulation and implementation of educational plans and programmes for school education in rural areas and of the particular problems which face the local and national administrations of education in improving the supply of education in remote rural areas. It is intended that the paper should refer specifically to the problems of organisation of school education within the framework of the implementation of reform.

Approach

There are specific facts about the local administration of education in remote rural areas which the authorities at the central level may not be aware of, or if they are aware of them, may not take account of them in their laws, administrative regulations and plans. The approach to be followed in the paper is to identify these facts and examine what, at the local level educational administrators are doing in order to carry out the Government's decisions with particular regard to the supply aspects of education. It is suggested that the paper might refer to the following questions :

1. What are the particular characteristics of a given remote rural area in your country, i.e. geographic (communications, settlement), ethnic, social and economic, and what special problems do these characteristics raise for the administration of education ?
2. What has happened to school education in the remote area in question (first and second levels) as regards the execution of current plans and programmes with reference to the introduction of new programmes, including the education of girls ?
3. A brief description (with organigramme) of educational administration at the local level.
4. A statement of main problems concerning the supply of education in remote rural areas:
   (a) School building and maintenance - who pays, who is responsible and what are the problems ?
   (b) Supply of furniture ?
   (c) Supply of male and female teachers respectively (incentives for remote areas)?
   (d) In-service training of teachers to remedy lack of training in general and in particular subjects; what can be done at the local level ?

(e) Supply of school books, libraries for pupils and teachers. What does experience show with regard to distribution ?

(f) Supply and production within the school respectively of visual aid materials ?

(g) Does the inspection of schools and the rôle of school heads contribute adequately to the improvement of teaching/learning in the schools ?

(h) How does the supply of administrative services provide adequate day to day administration and follow-up of the needs of the schools, co-operation with other local administrative bodies, with the teachers, pupils and parents and liaison, follow-up and monitering with the provincial and central ministry of education ? Do good administrators remain for adequate periods at local posts?

5. What conclusions would you draw in terms of adequacies and inadequacies of the administration of education at the local level from the above, what possible improvements are being tried and which would you suggest ?

(a) Can communications be improved ?

(b) Can the administration do more to promote contributions from and management participation by local people ?

(c) Could more adequate technical advice be provided in respect of school building and furniture making by local people ?

(d) Could teacher in-service training be better organised at the local level ?

(e) What can be done to improve the contribution of inspectors and heads to teacher support and management ?

(f) How can the supply of books, materials and visual aids be improved ?

(g) How can the work of the district offices be better organised in terms of organisation and methods (report writing and follow-up, filing, typing, reprography, liaison, accounts, training of personnel)?

(h) Wider conclusions as concerns the rôle of the national Ministry and provinces in the planning and administration of education at the local level.

Length and Distribution of content of papers

It is suggested that papers should not exceed 30 standard typed pages of which:

- characteristics of a remote area and school education and administration analysis = 5 pages
- main problems of the supply of school education in rural areas = 20 pages
- conclusions, including wider analysis of national implications = 5 pages

Appendix B
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Appendix C
LIST OF DOCUMENTS

Problems of educational administration in remote rural areas: some issues raised by participants' papers (IIEP/S54/1)
by R. F. Lyons

The organisation of education in the Bhimtal Block (India) (IIEP/S54/2)
by D. P. Nayar

The supply of education in remote rural areas: the case of the subdistricts-Pahandut, Bukit Batu and Kapuas Tengah, Central Kalimantan, Indonesia (IIEP/S54/3)
by Salikin Sumowardoyo

The organisation of education in Arunachal Pradesh (India) (IIEP/S54/4)
by J. P. Naik

Problems and organisation of education in the remote rural areas of Afghanistan (IIEP/S54/5)
by Mir Abdul Qayum

Construction and Maintenance of Schools in the Sankhuwa Sabha district of Nepal (IIEP/S54/6)
by Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania

The organisation of education in remote areas of the Republic of Korea (IIEP/S54/7
by Young-Choon Kim

The organisation and administration of education in rural areas in Thailand (IIEP/S54/8)
by Rung Kaewdang

Problems of education administration in the remote rural areas of the North-West Frontier Province (Pakistan) (IIEP/S54/9)
by Habibur Rehman and Mumtaz Akbar

The Philippines: problems of educational administration in rural areas (IIEP/S54/10)
by Priscilla Manalang

Appendix C

The organisation of education in remote rural areas in Bangladesh (IIEP/S54/11)
by K.A. Quasem

Problems of meeting learning needs in rural areas (IIEP/S54/12)
by R.H. Dave

The organisation of education in a selected remote rural area in Sri Lanka (IIEP/S54/13)
by D.P. Wijegoonasekera

The organisation of education in the Temerloh district of Pahang, Malaysia (IIEP/S54/14)
by Educational Planning and Research Division
Ministry of Education, Malaysia

DOCUMENTS PRESENTED AT THE MEETING

THE ORGANISATION OF EDUCATION IN THE BHIMTAL BLOCK, INDIA

by D. P. Nayar[1]

Introduction

India is a land of distances - including vast tracts of forests, hills and deserts - very weakly linked to the centres of power and decision-making due to poor communications. And yet the Indian Constitution directed that universal and free elementary education should reach every child in India within ten years of the commencement of the Constitution (1951). With increasing awareness of the value of the vote and advantages of education as a lever for social and economic mobility, the pressure for the other stages of education has also been building up everywhere. In spite of the tremendous progress achieved since Independence (1947), the problem of bringing to school vast sections of the population even up to the age of 14, especially in the remote rural areas, presents a continuing challenge. Equally great is the challenge of the reform and reorientation of the system to make it relevant to all, especially the weaker sections. A large number of committees and commissions have indicated the lines of orientation, and the pressure for reform has been daily mounting with increasing population and accelerating pace of development requiring more effective support from the education system. The Bhimtal Block has been selected to study in depth the problems of the organisation of school education in remote rural areas in the context of reform.

The Bhimtal Block is a part of the Nainital district, which itself is part of the hill region of the Uttar Pradesh State in India. It has been chosen for a study of the problems of the organisation of education in remote rural areas for a number of reasons. Firstly, the development of the hill region is a part of the country-wide development of the hill areas which are being given special attention by the Planning Commission in their bid to reach out to the weaker sections of society. Secondly, the Uttar Pradesh Government has declared it a planning and developmental unit and created the necessary infrastructure for it. In addition, various studies have been made, including the one (with special emphasis on the rural poor) for the Bhimtal Block, by the G. B. Pant University of Agriculture and Technology (1976), of the potential of this region. Therefore, this region has the

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1. Nayar, D. P., was formerly education adviser to the Planning Commission, Government of India, New Delhi; and subsequently consultant to the National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators, New Delhi.

framework within which a serious attempt can be made to link education with development, which is another declared aim of national policy. Thirdly, the area is very akin to the terrain in Nepal which is to be the subject of discussion at the Khatmandu Seminar. Fourthly, the National Staff College, in co-operation with the Directorate of Education of the Uttar Pradesh Government, carried out an on-the-spot sample survey as a part of the training course at Bhimtal[1] in May 1977, which generated valuable data in regard to the existing educational situation and its present and possible interactions with other departments, linking education with development. Fifthly, it has been increasingly realised that the poorest of the poor cannot be reached, nor can all the resources in a locality be husbanded to the optimum extent, without micro-planning. The unit for micro-planning has been taken to be a Block, which on an average consists of about 100 villages and 100,000 population. In the Bhimtal Block, excluding the urban population of 28,000 (Nainital and Bhowali), the population was 32,327 in 1971, consisting of 5,140 households, spread over 127 villages.

1. Much of the data used in this paper, unless otherwise indicated, was either provided by the State Government or collected by the trainees through a local survey.

CHAPTER I
GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE BLOCK

The following general characteristics of the Block which have implications for the organisation of education should be noted:-

1. Difficulty of terrain: The Bhimtal Block is an area of hills, rushing streams and several natural lakes.

2. Low-Density of population: The average density of the hill region, according to the 1971 census, was only 75 persons per sq. km. Out of the 127 villages in the Bhimtal Block, 78 (61%) have a population of 200 or less, of which 46 have even less than 100 persons each. There are only 4 villages with population above 1,000. The population of the rest - 45 - ranges from 200-900 of which 13 villages have a population ranging from 300-400 and 12 from 200-300. In addition, there are 4 revenue villages which have no population at all.

3. Rich natural resources: The block is rich in natural resources. While no survey of mineral resources has been made, limestone and sandstone are available in abundance and a number of lime based industries such as chemicals, white cement, marble chips etc. can be started.

Seventy per cent of the geographical area of the Block is under forest. Banj (oak) is found in all parts of the upper hills and pine trees in their lower parts. Resin, Bamboo, Ringal, Baie Grass are some of the important products of the forests in these areas. Other products are: honey, gum, hides and medicinal herbs. At present there are no industrial units to exploit these various resources. A number of industries, however, can be started : sports goods, furniture, ciderwood oil, packing cases, shuttle and bobbin blocks, parcel boards, plywood etc. At present many of these products go down to the plains, are processed and sent back to the hills for use by the hill people at exhorbitant prices. Another feature of the situation is that not only are the rich resources of the forests not being properly developed, unchecked vandalism has wrought havoc and led to large-scale denuding of mountains and soil erosion. So terrible are the consequences that it has shaken the hill people and the Chipko movement - where people clasp the trees to prevent their indiscriminate felling by the contractors - is spreading.

The area also has rich water resources in the form of lakes, and rivers on which a number of irrigation and power projects can be based. Dams, however, will have to be small for the large accumulation of water required for big dams could lead to a serious problem of water seepage due to the soft mountains. No survey, however, of these water resources has been made nor has the possibility of constructing small dams been properly gauged.

Agriculture being the main occupation engaging 75 per cent of the population, the development of land resources - reclamation of cultivable waste and fallow land which is available in abundance, and intensive use of the land under cultivation - becomes of extreme importance. At present only 10 per cent of the land is under cultivation and only 1 per cent under horticulture. The scope for horticulture development is considerable. Mushroom cultivation and processing, bee-keeping, fruit processing and preservation etc., would provide considerable lucrative employment.

There are considerable possibilities for the development of live-stock resources through cross breeding of the local cattle with improved varieties from outside. Goats and sheep can also be considerably improved to yield better wool and mutton.

The wind, apart from the fast running streams, is another source of energy which can be tapped through wind mills. Because of the high altitude solar resources of energy are also available in plenty for expoitation.

4. Undeveloped state of the economy: The natural resources have largely not been surveyed, developed and properly expoited. The study: "Integrated Rural Development Plan for Bhimtal Block", conducted by the G. B. Pant University, showed that 78 per cent of the total working population was engaged in farming, animal husbandry and allied jobs - an area of acute under-employment. It is estimated that on average, a family of 6.3 persons, which is the norm in the rural areas of the Block, can earn a monthly income of only Rs. 43.67 per head per hectare of cultivated land - taking the income from both farm and non-farm sources. In the Bhimtal Block 4,046 farm families out of the total of 5,127 (about 79%) have less than half an hectare of net cultivable land. According to the 1973 price index a monthly income of Rs. 40.60 per head was treated as the poverty line. With the price rises since then the poverty line must have risen. It is now estimated that 90 per cent of the rural areas of the block live below the poverty line. That is, they earn less than the sum considered to be the minimum desirable consumption level. Consequently, quite a large number of the families have one or two members who leave to earn their livelihood in the plains below. These are generally the more adventurous and more productive members of the family. Apart from being a consequence of underdevelopment, this exodus also becomes the biggest cause of continuing under-development as the stock of skilled manpower in the hills does not increase which is a disincentive to further investment in development. Nor is the lack of involvement in development conducive to the consciousness of and pride in development, which creates an unfavourable climate for development. As a matter of fact, when required for development projects skilled manpower has to be imported from outside and the local people are not in a position to benefit from development projects in the form of additional employment. The trek of bread-winners to the plains also disrupts family life and leads to many social evils.

Therefore, the need is twofold : one of accelerating the pace of development, and the other, of training the local manpower required through the education system.

5. Lack of basic amenities: Basic amenities like drinking water are very inadequate. A large number of villages either do not have or have only meagre drinking water facilities. The present sources of water are susceptible to pollution, thereby contributing to the incidence of water borne diseases like cholera, plague, diarrhoea and fevers. The average mortality rate is high.

Due to poverty and ignorance, the houses are extremely insanitary, resulting in the spread of diseases like tuberculosis, leprosy, etc. which are contagious. The problem of veneral diseases is also very serious. While the State has done fairly well for the hill areas, within the constraints of its resources, hospitals and dispensaries provided are inadequate, especially considering the difficulties of terrain. These difficulties are further compounded by the unwillingness of the medical and para-medical personnel to serve in these areas.

Assessment of the situation in regard to nutrition in the hill region was made in 1960. It was found that against the desired minimum nutritional target of 2, 370 calories and 66.5 grams of protein, including 10 grams of animal protein, per head per day, the food available was short by 400 calories and 14. 5 grams of protein per person per day. Various schemes have been launched to meet the nutritional needs of the people, especially the school children, but the situation calls for much greater effort than has been possible so far within the constraints of resources.

6. Social evils : Acute poverty leads to social evils like immoral traffic in women, begging, etc.

7. The strong hold of tradition: The people are tradition-bound and they have a rich folk culture, centring round religion and nature. The hills are full of temples devoted to one god or the other. It is interesting to note that an important complaint of the community, when it was consulted during the survey in May 1977, was that moral education and training in their culture - symbolised by music, dance and folklore - were lacking and they were afraid that the children as a result of their education would loose their moorings.

CHAPTER II
CHALLENGE OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC FEATURES TO THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Looking at the socic-economic scene the following features would have important implications for educational development:-

1. The thinly spread population would call for residential as against day schools so as to obtain viable units where the inputs which can be afforded will get satisfactory results. Residential schools will have the additional advantage, if properly exploited, of being capable of inculcation of appropriate habits and attitudes relating to all facets of life. If run on a self help basis, and the education provided is productive and problem-based, apart from having educational advantages, such schools need not be very costly. Perhaps the net cost would be even less than that of a well-run day school of the academic type. One handicap of such schools is the cultural alienation that they bring about in the children from their communities. But this danger can be obviated by locating these schools in one of the villages, and linking school activities with those of the community around, which would be very similar to the communities from which the children would come. Such residential schools are, however, feasible only at the middle and secondary stages of education.

2. Lack of communications which means that the countryside is composed of small isolated population pockets would indicate the need for a community-based culture and education which would strengthen the local organisation and the self-reliance of the community. Education must teach how to meet the basic necessities of life through self and mutual help, making use of locally available materials. This would call for an intensive exploration of local resources in terms of crops, grown or those that could be grown; herbs with medicinal properties; quickly growing trees that could be used for fuel; forest resources, which would be exploited through co-operative organisations for collection, marketing and sales; etc. Education must equip the people with first-aid for simple ailments and give them knowledge about such elementary precautions regarding health as the boiling of water and clean disposal/recycling of human and vegetable wastes.

3. The undeveloped state of the economy would indicate that vocational training must be strictly related to local development projects because those who are not absorbed will not be able to find a place easily. The general competence of the people to handle the problems of everyday life should be increased but no false expectations should be raised of transfer from traditional occupations to new ones.

4. The compulsion of poverty and ignorance of the people means that education must deal with the problems of daily life and productivity. They cannot afford the luxury of education which has no relevance to their life today.

5. The development projects taken up by government are of two types. There are certain major projects like road construction, dam building, mining etc. which will have a large-scale transforming effect on the economy. Here the expertise will have to come largely from outside, for such expertise cannot be gained in a short period. Large resources will be required, which will again come from outside. There is very little that the people themselves can do to aid these projects or be involved in them though they will be deeply affected by their results. Here the duty of the government is to foresee the impact of these big projects on the lives of these people and to prepare them for the social and economic consequences so that they understand and are able to benefit from the changes rather than be swamped by them. A big educational effort, supported by appropriate measures on many other fronts, will be required to make development meaningful and beneficial to these people. This education will have to be of a general nature as well as training in specific skills that would be required to meet the manpower needs of many new developments that will spring up as a consequence of these big projects.

The other facet of development is the setting up of a large number of small projects which will require for their successful execution the upgrading of skills, co-operative organisation for the procuring of raw materials and marketing and development orientation of the people. This means creation of a scientific temper and developing in them initiative, resourcefulness, leadership, co-operative spirit, etc. This is the task of general education and it should be geared to this. In these projects the people have to be involved at every step. For the real purpose here is that the people should be able to amend, improve and develop their own lives in a million small ways by identifying and exploiting the resources at their doorsteps. It is here that the major educational effort will have to be mounted on Gandhian lines, aiming at building up self-reliance and resource generation through co-operative effort. The challenge of the exploitation of the environment will call for major revolutionary changes in curriculum and methodology.

CHAPTER III
THE EDUCATIONAL SCENE - PROBLEMS AND POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

Primary education (6-11 age-group): Quantitatively speaking, the facilities in the hill areas are better than the State average, as a result of the continued efforts during the earlier plans to attend to these far-flung and neglected areas. Hundred and seventeen per cent of boys, 90 per cent of girls, and 106 per cent of boys and girls, taken together, are attending schools. These percentages, of course, include under-age and over-age children. The objective is to provide a primary school (for age-group 6-11) within a walking distance of 1 km. The small size of the villages leads to the problem of under-utilisation of the facilities created as is shown in Table 1

Table 1. Classification of primary schools by enrolment

Sl. No.	Enrolment	No. of schools	No. of teachers	Total No. of pupils	Pupil/teacher ratio
1	Below 10	1	1	8	8.1
2	10-20	3	3	42	14.1
3	21-30	8	12	187	16.1
4	31-40	9	15	232	16.1
5	41 and above	59	152	4 315	28.1

Source : State Government figures supplied in the training course at Bhimtal.

The second problem is that only 80 primary schools are serving 83 villages of the block. Children from some villages have to walk as much as 3 kms. to reach a primary school. The small population in the remaining habitations, however, makes it very difficult to provide a viable school. A number of expedients are suggested to meet the situation:

1. A group of unserved villages which are near to each other and can give a population of 200 or more may be provided with a central school. Such a group can be constituted by the villages of Soankhamari and Gahalana, for example, whose population is 49 and 177 respectively.

2. Peripatetic teachers assisted by a local assistant in each village, who need not be a qualified teacher but can ensure regular attendance and supervise the work of children either himself/herself or through a monitor and look after their personal hygiene, habits, manners etc. Self-study materials and learning kits can also be provided. Transistor sets could be made use of if the local assistance can be given elementary training in their up-keep and the local radio station can provide organised lessons.

Another problem in the expansion of primary education is the existence of more than one school in the same village, even though the enrolment could have been accommodated in one single school. These derive from bad planning or undue local pressure. The problem for the administration here is to persuade the local people to allow the shifting of one of the schools to a school-less village. In the Bhimtal Block there are two such villages : Mehragaon and Siloti, which have this problem.

Perhaps the most serious problem in primary education is that of wastage and stagnation. The poverty of the people, which compels them to use child labour to supplement the family income; the lack of tradition of education among the parents; the uninteresting curricula; the inadequacies of teachers etc. are responsible for this colossal waste, where out of 100 children who entered class I in 1970-71 only 42 passed class IV in 1973-74 and 38 passed class V in 1974-75. The rest either dropped out or stagnated for more than one year in the same class and so were still in the pipeline. Table 2 of flow statistics will bear this out.

Some of the remedies which have been thought of or are being adopted in one or other part of the country are:-

1. Provision of school meals, free uniforms and attendance scholarships for girls, appointment of school mothers, free textbooks etc. The mid-day meal scheme in the Tamil Nadu State of India led to considerable increase in enrolments. Free textbooks and reading materials are almost universally provided in India to the weaker sections of society.

2. Provision of non-formal education for dropouts. A non-formal education centre is being run at Bhoomiadhar in the block on an experimental basis by the N. C. E. R. T. The objective are twofold: to provide the children with increased vocational competence to motivate them to come to the centre. Training in mushroom growing, tie and dye, mat making, basket making, tailoring etc. is being tried out. Out of 40 children enrolled 25-30 attend regularly. The other objective is to win them back to the formal system. The problems that are being faced are two:

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Table 2. Wastage and stagnation in primary schools

Year		Classes I	II	III	IV	V	Passed class V
	A	695					
	L	9					
1970-71	F	210					
	P	476					
	A	210	476				
	L	38	32				
1971-72	F	42	54				
	P	130	390				
	A	42	184	390			
	L	18	33	18			
1972-73	F	5	28	30			
	P	19	123	342			
	A	5	47	153	342		
	L	1	20	21	11		
1973-74	F	-	-	22	33		
	P	4	27	110	298		
	A	-	4	49	138	298	
	L	-	-	16	23	7	
1974-75	F	-	-	3	13	26	
	P	-	4	30	102	265	265

A: Admitted; L:Left; F:Failed; P: Promoted.

Source: Education Department, State Government.

(i) The payment being made to the teacher is proportionately less than to the teachers in a regular school, although both the teachers - at the non-formal centre and in the formal school - are drawn from the same market and the task of the teacher in the non-formal centre is even more difficult. This creates dissatisfaction. (ii) The twin objectives of training those who come to the centre for increased productivity and re-entry into the formal system do not hang together so long as the formal system is largely confined to reading and writing skills. This reconciliation will be possible only when the contemplated reforms in the formal school - introduction of work experience, relating the curriculu to the environment etc. - are put through.

Another problem is that of single teacher schools where if the teacher falls ill or is unavoidabl absent the whole work of the class comes to a halt. It is necessary to provide one additional teacher to each of these schools who can act as the Headmaster as well as take the place of the teacher when the latter is absent. If the number of pupils does not warrant another teacher then the work of adult education can also be entrusted to this team.

Middle education (11-14 age-group) : The percentage of enrolment in the middle classes of the population age-group 11-14 is 36 for boys, 9 for girls and 24 for boys and girls taken together, against the national average[1] of 51, 27 and 40 respectively. The prescribed norm for middle schools is that a school should be provided within a walking distance of 3 kms. from the home of every child. The total number of villages not served according to this norm is 92. The population of these habitations varies from 2-399. The problem here again is, as at the primary stage, of providing schools adequately equipped in places where an adequate number of pupils are not available, even by joining together a number of villages into a school circle. The following measures may, therefore, have to be considered: (i) The opening of a continuation class in a primary school. This expedient has been tried and is working well in some places. (ii) The opening of residential schools. The problem of residential schools is, however, their cost as well as the alienation of the children from their families. Means to obviate these difficulties have already been discussed.

Secondary education : The prescribed norm is to have a higher secondary school within a distance of 8 kms., which is however, not possible in view of the scattered character of the population. At present, there are six institutions (two intermediate colleges, one high school for boys and three high-schools for girls) in the rural areas of the block. These are located in the more thickly populated areas and the remote areas are neglected. The only solution to the problem is hostels and stipends in centrally located schools for the children of people living in the remote areas. This is a strategy which needs to be employed on a large scale in areas of scattered population if viable and well run schools, which would give the children of these areas a quality of education similar to that provided for the children of the richer classes, are to be set up. Political pressures come in the way. Therefore, the alternatives of poor education near their homes or good education away from their homes should be clearly put to the people so that they can be persuaded to accept this reform which is really in their interest.

The main deficiencies in the existing secondary schools/intermediate colleges are in regard to buildings, equipment and playgrounds. According to the survey of community opinion conducted at the time of the training course already mentioned, it was the general feeling of the community that standards had been falling. Though the results in the girls' schools were 100 per cent, those of the boys' schools were poor. Especially poor were the results in science and mathematics, where the pass percentages were 35 and 33 respectively, due to the weak background of the students, ineffective teaching and weak supervision.

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1. Source: Draft Five Year Plan 1978-83, Government of India, Planning Commission, page 227.

Suggested solutions to improve the situation are:

1. To have centrally located residential schools with stipends so that viable and effective schools can be run for these areas.

2. High schools for girls need to be upgraded to the intermediate level, for otherwise girls very often drop out for want of facilities near enough to their homes.

3. The teaching of science and mathematics should be strengthened in primary and middle schools so that children become interested in these subjects and are good material for secondary school education. At present not only performance but even interest in science is lacking. In the L. P. Intermediate College only seven students had taken up science in spite of the fact that science equipment had been provided to this college on a lavish scale. Science and mathematics are basic to development-oriented education in the modern world.

Then, there is the problem of introducing relevant work experience based on local materials and local industries.

Another problem which has not yet been tackled is the vocationalisation of higher secondary education. The absence of facilities for vocationalisation has led to a situation in which if the children do not go on to higher education, they are neither fit for new vocations nor are they willing to go back to their parental professions. The community was, therefore, very keen that technical and vocational skills should be imparted to the children. A necessary concomitant of vocational education is vocational guidance, which is also missing in these schools.

Work experience and vocationalisation : In school education two reforms - decided at the national level and emphasised as top priority during the survey of the community opinion - have to be introduced : socially useful productive work at all stages and vocationalisation at the +2 stage after class X. From the primary to the high school stage, work has to be introduced as a part of the curriculum of general education for inculcating the dignity of manual labour and thereby removing mental barriers between manual and white-collar workers. Used as an educational project - asking and understanding the "why and wherefore" of every process involved - manual work, as was demonstrated by Gandhiji in his system of basic education, had tremendous potentiality for developing initiative, resourcefulness, team work and, above all, the scientific temper. Such an approach will also enable a progressive broadening of the mental horizon of students while still keeping their education centred round local and relevant problems. But to be successful we need besides the training of teachers and preparation of teachers' guides, considerable research support and re-orientation of the Inspectorate and the Directorate in this educational reform. As regards materials and equipment, the resources of the development departments should be available to the school to mutual advantage as was quite evident in the dialogue of educationists and district development officers at Bhimtal, provided policies of co-ordination could be worked out between the deparmental heads at the top and conveyed down the line. Similarly, in regard to vocationalisation at the +2 stage (after class X) the resources of the development departments should be fully utilised. The survey of natural resources and the possible uses to which they could be put shows the many possibilities of employment for the educated. These resources should be very carefully surveyed and a blue-

print prepared for their systematic and optimum development and the skill requirements necessary to which the vocational educational programme should be geared. The intra and inter departmental co-ordination, however, is a difficult, though an inevitable task, to which much greater thought needs to be given than has so far been the case.

Non-formal education : Non-formal education is provided for (a) drop-outs from schools; and (b) the 11-25 age-group. The programme in regard to the former group and the problems faced therein have already been mentioned. As regards the latter five non-formal education centres are being run in different areas of the block for the age-group 11-25, centring round horticulture, gardening, basket making and rope making, according to the local needs of the community. These centres have a total enrolment of 111 males and 50 females. The difficulties that are being faced are the lack of skilled persons in the community, the unwillingness of community members to give active co-operation, unattractive look of centres and poor attendance. Some of the measures that could be taken are : the provision of guidance and reading material by the functionaries of the development departments at the local level on subjects like bee-keeping, horticulture, agriculture, seri-culture, poultry, etc. to guide the teachers in training the people in these vocations; the provision of equipment and appliances at subsidised rates; the organisation of co-operatives to collect and market locally produced goods; the training of primary school teachers in trades common in their areas and in paramedical services; etc. This is an area in which the education department and the various other development departments have to join hands to put the programme through successfully.

Training: The teacher being the pivot of the whole system, any programme of qualitative improvement must centre round the pre-service and in-service training of teachers. The Bhimtal Block has 80 primary schools, 12 middle schools and 6 secondary schools to serve the rural and urban population. Two hundred and fifty seven teachers are employed in the primary and middle schools and 109 in the secondary schools. The annual desertion rate among teachers of the first category is 10 per cent and of the second category 5 per cent. Keeping in view the desertion rates as well as the new schools likely to be opened every year, it is felt that the requirements of additional teachers could be easily met from the large number of trained unemployed persons in the State at present. There is a strong case, therefore, for keeping only one training school for boys and one for girls for primary and middle school teachers. The existing training facilities for training of secondary teachers are also sufficient. There is, however, a very great need for increasing facilities for in-service training and refresher courses which can be located in the existing training institutions. In view of the fact that classes I-V do not have subject teachers, short courses for elementary training in science need to be organised for elementary teachers. The stipend paid to these teachers is, however, not sufficient to motivate them to take their training seriously. Refresher courses in science and mathematics for secondary teachers are also badly needed.

Rationalising the curriculum : Apart from the training of teachers, one of the other measures of improving quality is to modernise and to rationalise the curriculum. This needs training in scientific teaching of local crafts, proper organisation of compulsory education, introduction of music, dance, art and folklore, in keeping with the socio-cultural base of the local communities,

effective inspection and supervision and a guidance and counselling programme. The local environmental factors like topography, climatic conditions, vegetation and local history should also be reflected in the curriculum. Opportunities for development of hobbies is extremely important. The curriculum of science and social studies at the primary stage has been recently revised but the textbooks produced are too difficult from the language point of view. The books need more illustrative and attractive material.

Female education : In the hills women have to attend not only to household duties but to farm work as well. Consequently, they are not able to go to school. The State Government is, however, keen to spread education among girls. So after the primary stage, when enrolment falls sharply because of the greater usefulness of the girl at home, continuation classes have been started. In the more central places where high schools are located, a large number of girls go to these schools. Besides, especially at the primary and middle stages, girls also go to co-educational institutions. After high schools, however, in the absence of intermediate colleges in the vicinity most girls drop-out - there is no intermediate college purely for girls. To prevent wastage and stagnation among girls it is necessary to provide them with part-time classes which they can attend at a time suitable to them so that they can carry on their education side by side with domestic chores. Correspondence courses at this stage can also be introduced. Secondly, women teachers could be posted in larger numbers to elementary schools so that girls can come freely to co-educational institutions and the costliness of separate institutions for girls is avoided. Thirdly, education must be made relevant to the duties which the girls in this society have to perform. Besides the 3 R's they must have training in home science, cleanliness, child care, first-aid and any one of the local crafts in which they are interested.

Educational administration : The Indian political system is federal in character with the Constitution clearly defining the rôles of the Centre and the federating units (the States). Education falls largely under the State list, though the Central Government has definite responsibilities in regard to higher education, technical and vocational education etc. Through the co-ordinating mechanisms at the official and the political levels national policies are evolved by discussion and implemented through the mechanism of national planning. Within the broad framework of national policies, which they themselves have helped to evolve, the States have a very large measure of freedom and manoeuerability. Recently though the whole of Education has been included in the concurrent list and Parliament can wrest the initiative from the State legislatures, in practice the old tradition of utmost freedom to the States still continues.

The administrative organisation to deal with the various tasks of development of education at the school level is as follows. The block administration is the last rung of the administrative ladder. It is linked to the higher rungs to which it is subordinate.

At the headquarters, we have the Secretariat and the Directorate : the Secretariat under the leadership of the Secretary and Commissioner, deciding broad policies and linking up the Education Department with the apparatus of the Government as a whole; and the Directorate under the Director

of Education for School Education, laying down more detailed policies within the indicated framework of broad policies. He is also responsible for operationalising these policies in terms of concrete programmes and implementing them. The Director has a Joint Director (Hills) to look after the hill region of the State, comprising eight districts. The region is divided into two sub-regions : Kumaon and Pauri. The Kumaon region has three districts, including Nainital in which the Bhimtal Block is situated.

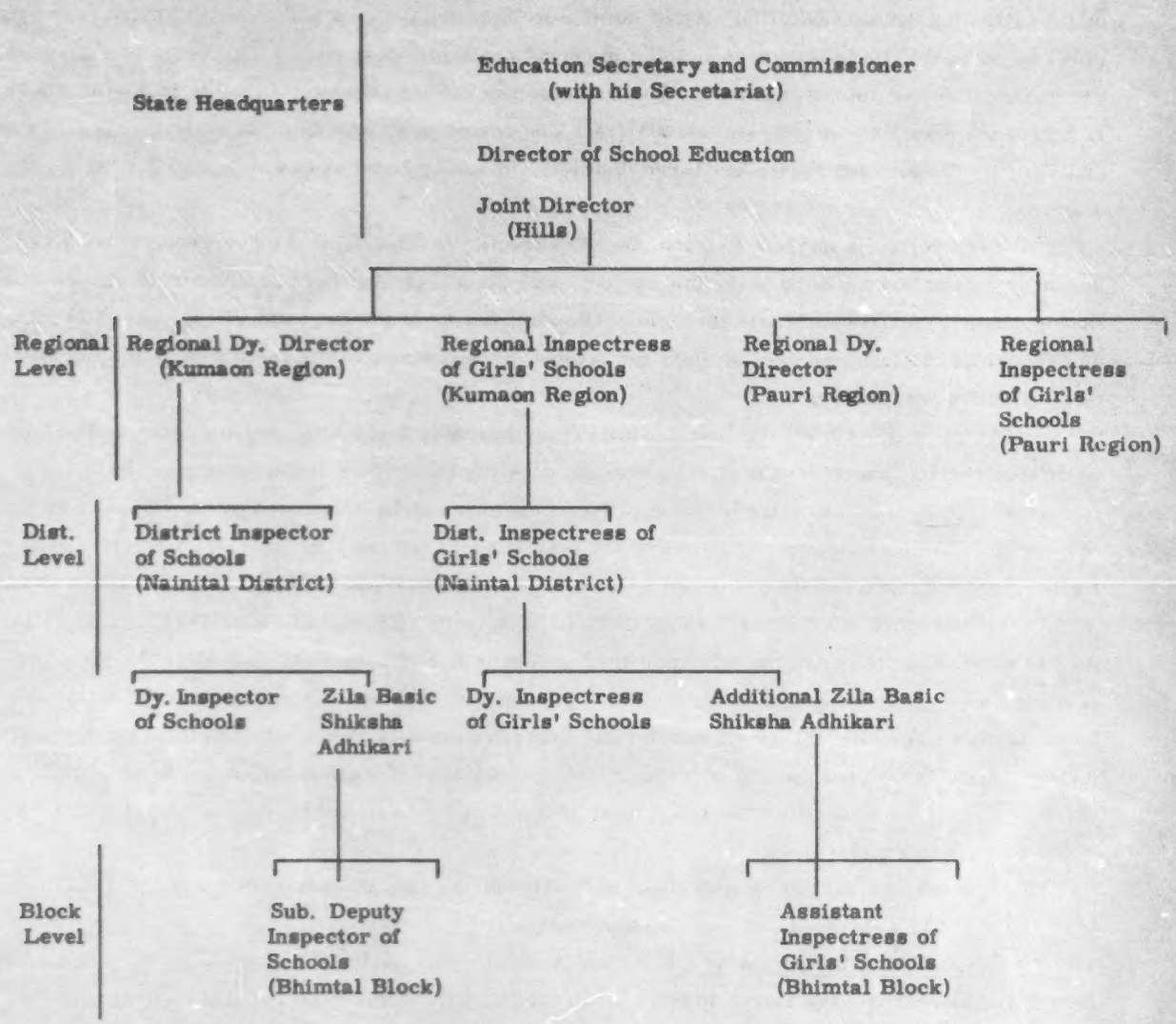
Each region is under a Regional Deputy Director of Education who oversees primary and secondary education for boys in the hill region. For girls' schools there is a separate officer called the Regional Inspectress of Girls' Schools. The main duties of the Regional Officers are to control and supervise the functioning of schools and offices of the district within their region and to ensure their effective functioning.

At the district level the District Inspector of Schools looks after the high schools for boys while the District Inspectress of Girls's Schools does the same for schools for girls. Primary and middle education is looked after by the Zila Basic Shiksha Adhikari assisted by the Deputy Inspector of Schools. Similarly, the girls' primary and middle education is looked after by the Additional Basic Shiksha Adhikari (Women) assisted by the Deputy-Inspectress of Girls' Schools.

At the block level we have the Sub-Deputy Inspector of Schools looking after primary and middle schools for boys and the Assistant Inspectress of Girls' Schools to look after the girls' education. So we have almost at every level a separate organisation for the inspection of girls' and boys' schools. All elementary schools further belong to the Zila Parishad - the local body at the district level, though the control of teachers and the payment of their salaries is the responsibility of the State Government. How the block level administration is linked to the State level may be seen in the following organigramme.

The various aspects of organisation, the problems they pose and some solutions that have been tried or are suggested, are indicated below :

1. Inspection and supervision : The inspectors are duly qualified and given in-service training. Norms for inspection have been laid down, both for the high schools/intermediate colleges and primary/middle schools. Every recognised high school and intermediate college in this district has to be inspected at least once in two years, and those schools which are not inspected during a particular year have to be 'visited' - a 'visit' being a kind of skeleton inspection. Besides, there are panel inspections of high schools and intermediate colleges. The panel includes one specialist in every subject. During these panel discussions, model lessons are given by the panelists in the presence of the staff of the school. Group discussions are also held among the subject teachers. At the end of the inspection a full meeting of the staff, the inspectors and the available members of the managing committee is held to discuss the points made in the inspection report in detail. Another advantage of these panel inspections is that good teachers and good students are identified for subsequent use at appropriate times.


State Headquarters
Education Secretary and Commissioner (with his Secretariat)
Director of School Education
Joint Director (Hills)
Regional Level
Regional Dy. Director (Kumaon Region)
Regional Inspectress of Girls' Schools (Kumaon Region)
Regional Dy. Director (Pauri Region)
Regional Inspectress of Girls' Schools (Pauri Region)
Dist. Level
District Inspector of Schools (Nainital District)
Dist. Inspectress of Girls' Schools (Naintal District)
Dy. Inspector of Schools
Zila Basic Shiksha Adhikari
Dy. Inspectress of Girls' Schools
Additional Zila Basic Shiksha Adhikari
Block Level
Sub. Deputy Inspector of Schools (Bhimtal Block)
Assistant Inspectress of Girls' Schools (Bhimtal Block)

Note : The organigramme restricts itself to indicating the linkages of the Bhimtal Block Education Administration upwards with the State level Administration. Similar linkages exist in the case of other Blocks.

As regards the frequency of inspections actually carried out vis-à-vis the norms laid down an in-depth study of 5 districts showed that performance was 80 per cent in the case of high schools and intermediate colleges and 100 per cent in the case of primary schools, which by any standard is a good record. In view however, of the activity profile[1] of the District Inspector of Schools and the Zila Basic Shiksha Adhikari in the Pithoragarh District, which is part of the hill region, given below it is doubtful whether inspections - apart from panel inspections - can be anything but perfunctory. (See Table 3).

That is why the participants in the Bhimtal Course expressed dissatisfaction with the quality of inspection and recommended lowering the norms, the decentralisation of pay distribution and routine administrative duties to the tehsil[2] level, separate officers for non-formal education, games and sports and the Balahar scheme (for feeding children). This is also borne out by the fact that only about 2.0 per cent of expenditure on education in Uttar Pradesh was spent on Inspection, which is low compared to other States in India, not to speak of more advanced countries.

Table 3. Activity Profile of the District Inspecting Officers

Activity	Percentage of Timing	
	District Inspector Schools	Zila Basic Shiksha Adhikari
Visiting and inspecting educational institutions	20	10
Travelling	15	5
Receiving Visitors	7	20
Attending meetings, conferences etc.	8	10
Office work	50	45
Any other	-	10
All Activities	100	100

1. Educational Administration in Uttar Pradesh (A Survey Report), National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators, New Delhi, pp. 91-92

2. A tehsil consists of a number of blocks.

The impact of inspection and supervision on improving the teaching and learning process can only be marginal. The situation, therefore, demands a local solution to the problem within the overall context of a decentralised administration. Some suggestions can be made in this regard, on the basis of experience in some of the other States in India : (i) The headmasters should act as local inspectors. As most of them have been senior teachers, their contribution to improving the teaching learning process could be considerable. (ii) The Education Commission (1964-66) recommended the setting up of School Complexes, where a number of elementary schools are put under the charge of a secondary school to act as 'friend, philosopher and guide'. Some of the States have tried this with success. An orientation course for the headmasters entrusted with this task in the problems of elementary education would, however, be necessary. (iii) One of the constraints in organising refresher courses for teachers is the TA/DA financial burden. In Madhya Pradesh, an attempt was made to overcome this by collecting the teachers of a number of schools in a central place and yet not too far from their schools on weekends, where they brought their own food and discussed their problems in the presence of a resource person. (iv) A good journal based on the specific difficulties of teachers will also be helpful. (v) The application of O & M techniques will also improve the routing, filing and utilisation of inspection reports.

2. Supply of materials : The provision of physical facilities in remote areas poses many problems. These are indicated below:

(i) Buildings : The school buildings are in a very unsatisfactory condition. A number of schools have no buildings of their own. Others need extension to ease the existing overcrowding. Still others are located in unsatisfactory rented buildings.

The schools are under three types of management : government, private and local bodies. The norms are, however, laid down for all schools by the State Government or bodies constituted by it like the Basic Shiksha Parishad or the Board of High Schools and Intermediate Education. There is machinery to enforce these norms. So far as buildings are concerned construction is done by the Public Works Department, which generally works through contractors. The designs have been given by the Building Research Institute, Roorkee, which has also put up a few model buildings. Repairs of private schools have to be done by the people themselves out of their own resources. Local authorities undertake repairs out of grants given to them. Government buildings are repaired by the Public Works Department. The percentage of the cost which has been fixed as authorised expenditure for repairs is, however, out-of-date, due to the price rise and consequently the repair position is becoming increasingly difficult. Similarly, lavatory facilities are in very bad shape. These are only available for girls and generally not well maintained. Another feature of the situation is that there is hardly any local participation. This is to some extent due to the scattered nature of the population, their poverty and heavy transport costs. The necessary effort to mobilise local support in the matter of buildings has also not been made in adequate measure. Land, however, is provided by the local people in the rural areas and acquired at market rates in the urban areas.

The following suggestions are offered for meeting the situation :

(a) A fuller mobilisation of local participation and the use of appropriate materials. The cost of Rs. 60/- per sq. ft., which has been worked out by the Rural Engineering Service of the Uttar Pradesh State, was brought down very considerably in Manipur where school houses were built with the Government providing and erecting the basic steel structure with CGI sheet roofing while the local community provided the wooden plank walling with local skills and materials and did the earth work up to the plinth level[1] under the expert guidance of the Central Building Research Institute, Roorkee.

(b) Training should be provided to children in digging soak pits and trench latrines and setting up simple urinals. This has been done in many basic schools in the country. The cost of these is very low.

(c) Repair should be a clear responsibility of the community through the Gram Sabha. There is a tendency among the people to consider repair as a governmental responsibility. Governmental machinery moves slowly and consequently timely repair is neglected with the result that the cost of repairs goes up.

(d) In high schools, building may be introduced as work experience, which is an essential part of the curriculum.

(e) Technical advice must be provided by the State Government so that the labour put in by the people yields the maximum result. Otherwise, as has been the experience in many States, much of the work done by the local people is wasted. Technical help could best be provided by an engineering unit located in the Education Department itself. The design provided should be in broad terms, taking account of considerations of security, light and ventilation, and leaving the rest to local initiative, so that a structure grows, which is in harmony with the local environment. Such involvement of the local people will have the additional advantage of building up their confidence, improving their skills and giving them the feeling that the school is their own and should be adequately protected and maintained by them.

(ii) Furniture and equipment : The present position with regard to furniture and equipment is very unsatisfactory in most schools, especially those in very remote areas. In the primary and middle schools, however, the furniture and equipment required are of a very simple type and can be built by local skills which could be improved upon as a part of adult education with the help of the extension agents of the various development departments. Making of furniture and equipment should also become a part of work experience, especially in high schools. Much of the science equipment could and should also be improvised by the schools. This will lead to a considerable reduction of cost and build up the initiative and self-confidence of the teachers. Much useful work in this regard has been done by the N. C. E. R. T., which could be drawn upon.

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1. School Buildings, Government of Manipur, page 1.

(iii) Libraries, Textbooks and Audio-visual Aids: For some time to come it would be difficult to provide libraries with supplementary reading material in primary schools. To some extent the children could share the facilities that may be provided for the adults under the adult education programme. The secondary school libraries, however, need prior and urgent attention. There is a reasonably satisfactory machinery in the State for textbook production and distribution. The main defect is the lack of local colour in textbooks, which are prepared on a State wide basis. The deficiencies could be made up by providing teachers' guides based on the study of the local environment. If sufficient guides are not available and printing is costly, cyclostyling may be resorted to. Teacher's guides should be intelligible and provided free or be easily accessible. The situation as regards audio-visual aids is very poor in most of the schools in these areas. The quickest remedy is to have short-term workshops for local teachers to prepare these themselves. Some aids can be made also by the students.

3. Supply, training and management of teachers : In Uttar Pradesh there is no dearth of supply of trained teachers, though the unwillingness of teachers to be posted in distant places as usual is in evidence in the hill areas as well. There is, as a matter of fact, a large number of unemployed trained teachers. Therefore the policy of the State Government is to contract an consolidate rather than expand training facilities. These facilities are, moreover, being used for a large programme of in-service training, especially for training in subjects like science and mathematics which are either new or important or where the existing capabilities of teachers are weak.

The management of teachers in Uttar Pradesh, to which the teachers in Bhimtal are also subject, is well conceived. Norms have been laid down for teachers in different schools and there is a machinery to enforce the observance of these norms. The qualifications for each type of teacher are also laid down. There is a proper recruitment machinery. The principle of a combination of promotion and direct recruitment to higher posts is an incentive to teachers to improve their qualifications and performance. Other incentives are also provided for improvement of qualifications by teachers whether they are in government, in private schools or those managed by local bodies. The salary payment procedures have been simplified. The performance of various teachers is evaluated on the basis of inspectors' reports, results of pupils etc. and a number of reward schemes exist. Teachers' welfare services have also been provided. Teachers are also involved in curriculum construction and have a machinery for sharing experience and expertise through summer institutes, conferences, publications etc. and thus may grow professionally. Parent/teacher associations at certain places also enable the teachers to study the background of their pupils more thoroughly and to get the parents' point of view in regard to the education being provided.

The number of female teachers and especially head teachers is, however, small. As the Administration Survey Report[1] points out, only 19-20 per cent of the heads of recognised schools, excluding pre-primary schools, were females.

1. Educational Administration in Uttar Pradesh (A Survey Report), National Staff College for Educational Planners & Administrators, New Delhi, page 37.

One lacuna, to which the survey report[1] draws our attention, is that in the State as a whole 80 per cent of headmasters and principals of secondary schools and intermediate colleges had no administrative experience. This was also reflected in the analysis of their duties where most of the time was spent in teaching rather than in administration or maintenance and development of public relations.

4. Plan formulation : Another shortcoming in the organisational set up - which is common to the country as a whole - is the lack of involvement of the local officers and the local people in the formulation of the Plan itself. Ever since the beginning of planning, due to various difficulties, planning has largely been done at the Central level in India. Progressively, however, the machinery is being built up at the state, district and block levels. That at the last two levels is, however, in its very initial stage. Whatever planning is done in the educational field at the state level, is again concentrated at the state headquarters. The Secretariat lays down the broad policy and receives indications from the Planning Department of financial ceilings. These they pass on to the Directorate which, with whatever knowledge the officers have of the ground level - most of them have had experience at various levels of administration - draw up schemes within the indicated outlays. These are given in turn to the regional, district and lower officers for implementation. Some consultation, however, does take place with various bodies constituted by the State like the Basic Shiksha Parishad and the Board of High Schools and Intermediate Education. Consultative bodies are also constituted at various levels where officials and non-officials are represented. A selected number of institutions are asked even to supply information or send suggestions. As stated in the Administration Survey Report[2], in the State as a whole, about 25 per cent of schools, except pre-primary schools, were involved in one process or the other. After the plan has been approved, the schemes are handed over to the regional and district officers who in turn distribute them to the blocks and the villages either according to the real needs established by the quinquennial surveys or according to political pressures. The survey can be a powerful tool in the hands of a minister to resist political pressures.

The main defect in the planning mechanism is that initiatives from below, which are necessary for full involvement of the teachers and the parents, are not built up or encouraged. The result is that rural needs, school by school, are not reflected in the plan. Understanding of the commitment to the plan is lacking in the communities and the junior officers. It also seriously limits the possibilities of mobilisation of local resources, which depend upon the enthusiasm which the plans are able to generate among the people. Another handicap of centralised planning is that there is hardly any

1. Educational Administration in Uttar Pradesh (A Survey Report), National Staff College for Educational Planners & Administrators, New Delhi, p. 37.
2. Ibid page 75.

manpower planning for middle level skills required in the locality, which is essential for successful vocationalisation of higher secondary education or even for the introduction of work experience in the lower stages. This requires a survey of local resources and proper linkages with local development departments. Local priorities are also not reflected in the curriculum. Educational reforms are neither suitably planned nor understood or supported enthusiastically. But, it is hoped that the new thrust for block level planning will remove this deficiency. It is, however, only as yet in its initial stages.

There is no systematic monitoring and evaluation except through meetings, periodic reports etc. Systematic evaluation is, however, done of some select schemes.

To improve the situation it must be emphasised that educational development as a part of overall development is a dynamic process and will call for continual reform of the education system. Such reforms, while keeping in view the overall needs and priorities of national development, need to be thoroughly rooted in local needs - economic, social and cultural - for which a diagnostic survey would be a great help. For the purpose, we not only need trained staff at the District headquarters but also need to prepare the local community and teachers for active involvement in the process. This will require marrying of local needs and national priorities at the district and State levels, which will need a very effective chain of communication within the Education Department and effective co-ordination with other departments at the various levels. Effective implementation of reforms would require a larger degree of decentralisation of decision-making, the rationalisation of recruitments and promotions, the stream-lining of office procedures, frequent refresher courses and workshops, training heads of institutions in the management of innovations, full involvement of the local communities and assessment and maximum possible utilisation of local resources. This should be supported by an effective system of monitoring and evaluation and action-oriented research to test the various mechanisms created for the formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of reforms.

CHAPTER V
CONCLUSION

In the earlier sections the various problems in the remote rural areas and their possible solutions have been analysed separately. Many of these problems, however, are inter-linked and reinforce each other, adding new dimensions, which demand a comprehensive, unified solution. It is this unification, this viewing of problems in inter-relationship, that is attempted in this section.

Many of the problems like the relevance of education, the difficulty of mobilising local support in management and resource availability etc. spring from the centralised character of planning. Most of it is still done at New Delhi or the State capitals. The attempt to build up a planning machinery at the district and block levels - let alone the village and the institutional levels - is still in a very early stage. Planning capabilities have to be developed in the local officials and the local people to identify local needs, within the broad framework of national policies, and to estimate realistically the local effort that will be needed and can be mobilised to supplement the share of state resources that are likely to come forth for local development, so that the local plans that emerge are not only technically sound but also manifest a healthy balance between local aspirations and local sense of responsibility. Such local plans instead of being a charter of local demands would be a great help in filling in the details, within the outline of the national and state plans, and occasionally indicate even certain modifications in national policies in the light of the situation at ground level. Local people themselves could also undergo changes if they infringed national policies at strategic points.

Closely allied to the above, and to some extent arising out of it, is the second set of problems posed by the need to meet the demands of the national system of education and the need for local relevance. Education in any region has a dual responsibility. To ensure the mobility of students from one area to the other and to equalise the employment opportunities to products of educational institutions throughout the country, education has to have national objectives, national patterns and national standards. At the same time, the educational programme must spring from the needs of the child and the community to provide adequate motivation to the learners and to exploit the most effective medium available for the educational process, i.e., the local environment, which alone provide the opportunity for problem-solving capabilities to be developed, social conscience to be built up, local interest and support aroused and education forged as an instrument of development.

The two apparently contradictory needs can be reconciled if national objectives, goals and standards are defined in broad terms, and operationalised in the local environment. While there is general agreement in regard to fitting education to the national pattern, the realisation of the importance of its local dimension is only slowly emerging.

The third set of problems arises from three characteristics of remote rural areas, which reinforce each other. These are distance and lack of effective communication with centres of decision-making; poverty and ignorance of the local population; and low population density. Because of distance the central commands do not reach the local level effectively, nor is effective monitoring, evaluation and feedback possible. Adequate help does not reach the schools in time. Good teachers manage to get transfers to places where basic amenities and good facilities for education are more easily available. Inspectors rarely reach such places. An so on. The need, therefore, is for building up an effective local organisation and putting the people on their own feet. Due to the poverty and ignorance of the people, however, local educational and material resources are undeveloped. But because of the low population density viable units of outside help cannot be permanently located there. To break the vicious circle, the following strategy is suggested :-

Firstly, if there is a dedicated voluntary worker or organisation working in that area, he or it should be identified, encouraged and helped, both financially and technically, as the most precious resource.

Secondly, a resource centre should be set up in a viable area, which is more or less homogenous. From here mobile teachers could go to different remote areas, identify their problems and suggest solutions. They would also identify potential constructive leadership and build on them as outposts of development. The resource centre and its team would be inter-departmental and would assist in all problems : pedagogic, economic, social etc. These centres should preferably be located at the block headquarters so that inter-departmental co-ordination and co-operation can be facilitated. In turn these centres should be able to draw upon the help of similar resource centres at the district and state levels to solve carefully identified local problems.

Intra-departmental and inter-departmental co-ordination is essential for a dynamic system of education, for adequate motivation and involvement of the people and for optimising the return from investments made in the various development programmes by exploiting their mutually reinforcing capabilities. It will, however, require agreement at the top among the various concerned departments, decentralisation of decision-making powers to enable the functionaries at the various levels to have the necessary initiative to modify procedures required for effective co-ordination with other departments, the recognition by each functionary of his own rôle and the corresponding rôle of his counterparts in other departments so as to be able to identify possible points of mutual inter-action, a periodic check and evaluation as to how co-ordination is working and taking quick corrective measures, if the tradition of departmental isolation is to be broken.

Thirdly, with the help of necessary incentives, the most dedicated and resourceful teachers should be requested to go to these places, because the task in these areas is the most difficult and challenging, i.e., that of putting the community on its feet.

Fourthly, decision-making powers will have to be decentralised and wide powers for mobilisation of local resources and expenditure given to local managing committees, which should be set up.

Fifthly, the strategy of self-reliance to overcome the disadvantages of the isolation of the area can most easily be reflected in the supply of materials. School buildings can be most easily and most cheaply put up with local materials, collected by the local people, and using community labour, under technical guidance. The experiment of the Building Research Institute, Roorkee in Manipur shows the considerable economies that can be thereby effected. At the middle and high school levels the building trade can also be introduced as work-experience and vocational training. Similarly, in regard to furniture and equipment the requirements are simple and can easily be met by the local artisans, especially if, under the scheme of adult education, their skills are also upgraded. The students and teachers of middle and high schools can also produce furniture and equipment as part of their work experience and vocationalisation programmes, especially if the work is handled as an educational project. The problem of the supply of raw materials and marketing of finished goods - which comes up in a big way, if work experience is introduced in schools - can thus be minimised. Another clientele for goods produced under work experience can be the students and the local community themselves, if the crafts selected are such that they use local materials and keep the local needs in view. Our experience in basic education in this regard was very encouraging. In regard to audio-visual aids and science equipment, the experiments of the Centre of Educational Technology, National Council of Educational Research and Training, show how much can be improvised with the help of local materials. The research support of local research institutions, on the lines of work of the N. C. E. R. T., would be very helpful. The spirit of improvisation should be encouraged in training colleges also. Textbooks, however, cannot be locally produced. The distribution problem could be solved to some extent by distributing textbooks through schools. The only suitable organisation for libraries is to have circulating libraries with the Block Headquarters acting as the central feeding library.

Sixthly, the problem of the supply and training of teachers can also best be solved by the strategy of self-sufficiency. As it is difficult to get good teachers from outside and to persuade them to stay on in these areas and to save on teachers' quarters as well as to avoid the problem of absentee teachers, it is best to train local men and women through condensed courses, of which the Department of Social Welfare has considerable experience. Further, the teachers should be helped to train themselves on the job through the provision of teachers' guides, magazines and correspondance courses. This continued guidance will enable them to keep abreast of the rapid changes taking place in the content and methodology of education. Expert teams from the nearby resource centre already mentioned, can also upgrade their competence. In one State a very interesting experiment of collecting teachers in a group with a resource person on week-ends was introduced without cost because it was organised within walking distance from the various schools involved and the teachers brought their own food for the day. Further, as the idea of a curriculum related to environment spreads, it will become necessary to move the training colleges to the rural areas, so that teachers get an opportunity

of learning how the environment can be used as an agency of education. While it may be difficult to print textbooks for each area, locally useful guide-books for teachers could be produced in a cyclostyled form. In this, the State Institutes of Education and Science Education can help. They could divide the State into homogeneous areas, pick key problems in each area and develop educational materials around them.

Seventhly, the impact of supervision and inspection can also be made effective - apart from using the O & M techniques for improving the existing filing, perusal etc. of inspection reports - within the present constraint of resources, only through locality-centered devices. Elementary schools could be grouped together and supervised by a high school in School Complexes. Again, the headmaster of each school should be trained as a local supervisor, whose guidance is constantly available to improve the teaching-learning process. Lastly, while the local community cannot assist in academic supervision, it can certainly assist in the inspection of the physical plant and the regularity of attendance of the pupils and teachers. This will have the additional advantage of making the community aware of the physical needs of the school, which would motivate them to try to meet them through mobilisation of local support. In the Tamil Nadu State of India Rs. 140-150 million[1] were contributed by local support from 1957 to 1977 in addition to contributions for mid-day meals, free uniforms etc.

Thus, the basic strategy for organising education - as a matter of fact, any development - in remote rural areas is to develop the maximum self-reliance through the use of local materials and development of local cadres. Outside agencies can only work as catalytic agents.

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1. NAYAR, D. P., Management of Local Support to Education in India - A case study (sponsored by Unesco), National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators, New Delhi (cyclostyled), page 80.

THE SUPPLY OF EDUCATION IN REMOTE RURAL AREAS: THE CASE OF THE SUBDISTRICTS PAHANDUT, BUKIT BATU AND KAPUAS TENGAH, CENTRAL KALIMANTAN, INDONESIA

by Salikin Sumowardoyo

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION TO THE CONCEPTS AND ORGANISATION OF EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES AS CONSTITUTED BY THE NATIONAL POLICY OF THE REPUBLIC OF INDONESIA

Education for the population is for the Republic of Indonesia a matter of principle as stated in the National Philosophy, Pancasila, in the 1945 Constitution and other official documents. In the preamble of the Constitution it is stated that one of the most important objectives of the Republic is to create an intelligent and modern nation, both spiritually and materially, an objective which can only be realized by means of education. Thus education has been considered as one of the means to enact the principle of social justice and at the same time as investment in human resources. But human resource development does not explain everything. It can only be positively meaningful if we can educate and mould the population into an effective labour force and mobilize it for development purposes.

Three basic concepts can be stated as constituting the national policy of education, to wit :

(1) The concept of life-long education, i.e. education as a part of and integrated in the human culture. Education does not therefore merely cover formal education, but also implies non-formal education.

(2) The concept of responsibility for education which is seen as borne jointly by the family, society and the Government

(3) The concept of education as a vital means for national development. Development is meant for the benefit of the human being and not otherwise.

For a country with conditions such as exist in Indonesia, i.e.

- an archipelago, consisting of thousands of islands, big and small;
- a population of about 135 million, unevenly distributed on about 1,000 islands varying from 2 per km/sq in Irian Jaya to about 700 per km/sq in Java, extremely diverse in culture and habits, with different conditions and levels of development, and a birth rate of more than 2 % yearly;
- a system of communication and transportation which still needs to be developed;
- economic problems, etc.

Application of the three basic concepts mentioned above will meet a lot of problems, which may be briefly stated as follows:

(1) the problem of expanding and evenly distributing opportunities for school education; this is a matter of quantity;
(2) the problem of improving and equalizing the quality of education;
(3) the problem of relevancy, and
(4) the problem of the effectiveness and the efficiency of education.

Speaking about quantity for instance, figures for 1974 indicate that the number of the school-going population (7-12 years) of that year was 22,256,269, and nationally speaking only 73% or 16,247,050 could be accommodated. Figures for the various provinces fluctuated between 55.8% and 93%. At the secondary level (the 13-18 year group), totalling about 17 million, some 13 million were not attending schools. At the higher academic level the number of students was about 255,00, which was only about 2.5% of the 18-28 years old labour force.

Research, carried out in 1975, shows also that the effectiveness and efficiency of education was very low. The drop-out rate at the primary level was not less than 30% while the number of the graduates of all higher educational institutions was not more than 6,500 or 5% of the number of all the students.[1]

Due to constantly improving conditions in the economic and political sectors during the First Five Year Development Plan (1968-1973), in the following Five Year Development Plan (1973-1978) more comprehensive and bigger programmes based on research data could be planned and carried out.

Without neglecting necessary improvements at secondary and higher level, the central point of the policy had become the expansion and improvement of the quality of primary education. The enrolment target by 1979 has been fixed at the participation rate of 85 %, equal to a number of about 19.2 million. For this purpose, by Presidential decrees, the Government determined to do the following:

(1) To build 18,000 classrooms in 1973, 18,000 in 1974, 30,000 in 1975, 30,000 in 1976, 45,000 in 1977 and 60,000 in 1978
(2) To rehabilitate 10,000 old classrooms in 1975, 16,000 in 1976, 15,000 in 1977 and 15,000 in 1978
(3) To recruit 57,740 new teachers in 1973, 18,000 in 1974, 50,000 in 1975, 30,000 in 1976, 44,000 general and 16,000 religious teachers in 1977 and 15,000 new principals and janitors in 1978
(4) To distribute 4,554,000 textbooks in 1974, 6,150,000 in 1975, 11,160,000 in 1976 and 5,150,000 in 1977;
(5) To distribute 26 jeeps and 467 motorcycles in 1973, and 2,154 motorcycles and 142 motorboats in 1974 in order to increase supervisional activities.

To improve the quality, a new curriculum was issued in 1975. Transfering these activities into budgetary terms we have the following: in 1974 = $51,124,000, 1975 = $126,070,000, 1976 = 151,938,000 and 1977 = 224,663,000.

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1. Figures from : Policies on education and culture in Indonesia, Min. of Education, 1976..

Table 1 indicates the numbers and the increase of enrolment in schools during the years 1974-1978

Table 1. Enrolment in schools of all levels in the years 1974-1978[1].

Schools and level	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Primary schools	13 708	14 280	15 550	17 265	19 165
Lower secondary education	1 691	1 895	2 138	2 337	2 555
a. General education	1 328	1 513	1 747	1 946	2 144
b. Vocational education	363	382	391	391	411
Higher secondary education	725	801	916	1 036	1 226
a. General education	320	348	385	442	486
b. Vocational education	326	348	398	436	561
c. Teachers education	79	105	133	158	179
Higher education	123 350	134 525	144 740	155 980	168 460
a. Exacta	46 050	48 025	49 560	51 175	55 270
b. Non-Exacta	49 100	48 470	54 765	61 180	66 070
c. Teaching and education	28 200	38 030	40 415	43 625	47 120

1. Presidential Statement 1978.

The targets to be achieved during the third Five Years' Development Plan are among others as follows :

(a) At the primary level to provide educational opportunities for 100% of school aged children, and this will amount to about 26 million, by means of :
- providing more buildings, equipment and new teachers;
- to accelerate the participation rate in schooling by disseminating the "PAMONG" System[1];
- to implement the SMALL SCHOOL[2] system, especially in the remote areas.

(b) At the secondary level in order to provide the opportunity to continue studies to higher institutions for 85% of the number presently not continuing on to lower secondary and 81.5% at the higher secondary level.

Open secondary schools will also be tried in order to increase the possibilities of primary school drop-out children to continue their studies.

In order to meet the ever growing number of projects and volume of activities, the organization of the Ministry of Education and Culture has structurally and functionally changed as follows: At central level:
- The Minister of Education and Culture
- The Inspectorate General

1. Self-instructional learning system.
2. See Annex I for explanation.

- The Office of Research and Development of Education and Culture
- The Secretariat General
- The Directorate General of Primary and Secondary Education
- The Directorate General of Higher Education
- The Directorate General of Outer School Education and Sports
- The Directorate General of Culture
- Centres

At regional level

- Public universities
- Coordinator of Private Universities
- Regional offices of the Ministry in Provinces, Districts and Subdistricts.

CHAPTER II
THE SUPPLY OF SCHOOL EDUCATION IN THE REMOTE AREAS OF CENTRAL KALIMANTAN, INDONESIA

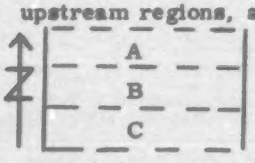
Geographical context: transportation, economic and cultural constraints

Central Kalimantan is Indonesia's province No. 17, constituted in 1957. The area is an extensive lowland, terminated in the north by the Swahner and Muller mountain ranges, where a great number of rivers have their source. These rivers slowly stream southwards, taking with them a lot of silt and pour their water into the Java sea. Over the years new tributaries and deltas have been formed. Up to the present the four biggest rivers, to wit the Barito, the Kapuas, the Kahayan and the Sampit form the main entrances into the hinterland. In the last decade pilot project airfields have been constructed to accommodate small Cessna type aircraft connecting the main towns in the Province, Palangka Haya, Sampit and Pangkalan Bun with the outside world via the capital and city port of the neighbouring province Banjarmasin. A 150 kilometre-long land road is in construction, which will connect the city of Palangka Raya and a new site of economic potential, called Kasungan.

Palangka Raya, the provincial capital, is a newly-built city, about twenty years old, an "oasis" in the jungle, on the bank of the Kahayan river. Hereabout E. E. Henry, a short-term consultant on rural small schools, wrote the following in his report:

> "It ("Palangka Raya") is a city in a remote district in Central Kalimantan, previously Borneo, which can be reached only by a regular daily air service or by river transport, a journey of one and a half days to the nearest town - the city port of Banjarmasin. Air travel is about 45 minutes from this city over miles of swampy jungle intersected by hugh slow moving rivers. The climate is ("as elsewhere in the area") very hot and humid; temperatures are usually about 30°c, bearable for Europeans only with air conditioning. The city is a collection of about 40,000 people, most of whom live at subsistence level. Most live in boats and wooden houses on stilts on the banks of the Kahayan river or in rickety houses nestled tightly together nearby. A few, probably government workers, live in pleasant, modern-style homes ..... There is a hall, a ("small") museum, cinema, post office and government offices.
>
> Although the city is in the middle of swampy jungle and living conditions are indeed primitive, the atmosphere was particularly clean and free of pests."

A dominant group among the population of 850,183 people is the Dayak Ngaju group. The population density is about 6 per km/sq. and is higher in the downstream areas of the rivers and lower in the upstream regions, as visualized by the following diagram:



A = 30% area, ± 15% population, average 5 per km/sq
B = 30% area, ± 20% population, average 5 to 10
C = 40% area, ± 15% population, average > 5

EAST
KALIMANTAN
TIMUR
KALIMANTAN
BARAT
KALIMANTAN
TENGAH
KALIMANTAN
SELATAN
Banjarmasin
Kualapembuang
Sampit
Pangkalanbuun
Kendawangan
Ketapang
Sukadana
Pontianak
Singkawang
Sambas
Nangapinoh
Putussibau
Sintang
Kapuas
Samarinda
Balikpapan
Tarakan
Tanjung Redeb
Tanjung Selor
Long Bawan
Malinau
Tarakan
Nunukan
Tg. Datu
Tg. Simpang
Tg. Sambar
Tg. Puting
Tg. Aru
Tg. Mangkalat
Tg. Sirik
Tg. Jerjak
Gunong
Kabong
Lundu
Serian
Sematan
Kuching
Simanggang
Sibu
Sarikei
Kanowit
Rajang
Meluan
Belaga
Long Apoh
Long Pasia
Long Nawang
Long Bulan
Long Kemuat
Long Pahangai
Long Iram
Long Bagun
Long Hubung
Long Lunuk
Long Segar
Long Ampung
Long Ikis
Long Kali
Long Kelinjau
Long Lees
Long Lama
Long Bia
Long Apan
Long Pujungan
Long Peliran
Long Metun
Long Nawang
Long Layu
Long Berang

With the exception of the bigger settlements in the downstream areas, more than 60 per cent of the population are living in small villages, dotted on the banks of the big rivers and their tributaries. An example of such a village is described by Dr. Dean Nielson in his inspection tour in the area, only about 40 minutes by speedboat (of 70 HP) as follows:

> "A typical village in the area is Garong. It has a population of 305, with 40 houses and 40 heads of family. It has one SDN (a public primary school), with 2 rooms, 3 classes and 2 teachers. Most of the inhabitants engage in fishing and (small) gardening, although many travel down the river to work in a saw-mill. All of the inhabitants of Garong are, without exception, ethnically Dayaks. Their mother tongue is the Ngaju Dayak dialect. Forty per cent are Moslems, 10 per cent Christians and the rest practice the indigenous religion called Kaharingan. One of the 2 teachers is a native of the village, while the other is from down the river".[1]

Most of the villages in that area are indeed similar to Garong in many respects, although there are significant variations in the number of houses and inhabitants, distribution of religious affiliation, the availability of opportunities for wage earning and the conditions of the schools. All transportation to and between the villages has to be done by boat, either a speedboat, a motorized prow or a canoe. Motorized waterbuses and prows are mostly operating in the downstream areas, while the people in the more remote upstream regions (villages) have to be satisfied with small canoes. Only a few of them who have a higher standard of living can afford the luxury of buying a motor for his prow. A small outboard motor of 10HP for instance costs about 70,000 rupiahs, a sum too high for the common people in the area. Motor travel is indeed expensive in that area. A one hour trip by the speedboat of the Provincial Educational Office needs a sum not less than 7,000 rupiahs for fuel only. For a four hour trip by "klotok" (a motorized prow) one has to pay about 2,500 rupiahs.

Answering my question about the yearly frequency of school visits, Hester Saleh, head inspector of primary education in the subdistricts Pahandut and Bukit Batu, told the following story:

> "I have to supervise 56 schools. According to the instructions of my "boss" in the Provincial Office I have to visit every school three times a year. But it is impossible to do that because of budget shortage. A marathon one school - on hour visit takes about two weeks and a sum of about 45,000 rupiahs. And I have not got the necessary budget for that."

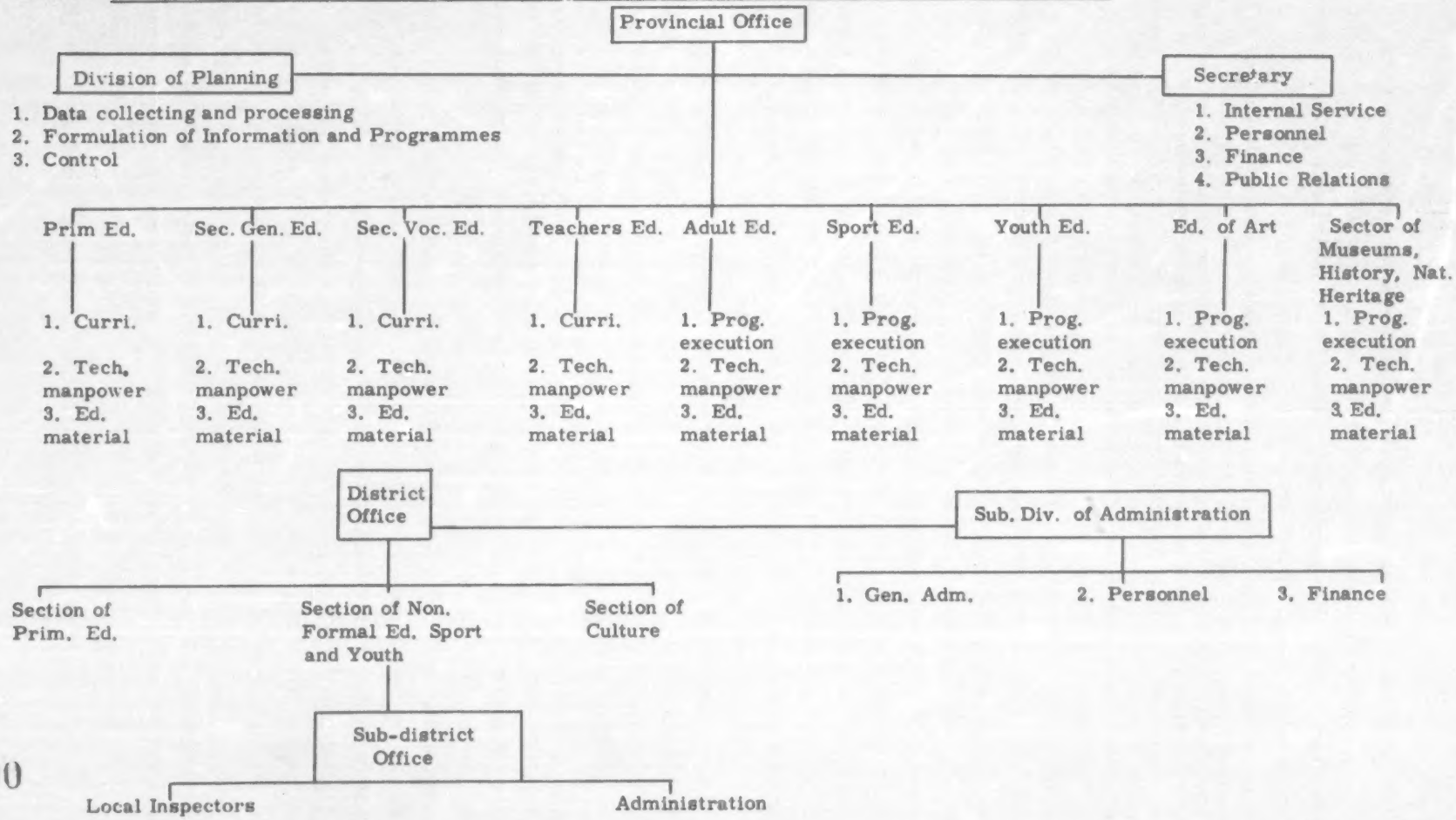
Reports on supervision in the area indicate that there are indeed schools which have not been visited by an inspector for the last 10 years.

It is obvious that the supply of school education in areas with the conditions as mentioned above needs special treatment as regards planning, organisation and management within the framework of national policy to avoid increasing financial and educational wastage.

Chart 1 indicates the general pattern of administrative organisation at provincial, district and subdistrict level as issued by ministerial decree No. 079/0 - 1975. Based on the volume of services to be offered (number of schools, population, stage of development, etc.) by the educational offices, there are three types of Provincial educational offices, type A for the most developed, B for the middle-level and C for the less-developed. Central Kalimantan has been considered as type C. Servicing of the sectors for primary and teacher education, and also those of lower and

1. Dean Nielson cs: Small schools in Central Kalimantan, Trip report and recommendations.

Chart 1. Structure of educational administrative organization at Provincial, District and Sub-district level



Higher secondary education is carried out by one office.

The problem of dualism of management in the primary education sector: According to the act of autonomy, two ministries are responsible for the supply of primary education. Generally speaking the provision of the physical part, like school buildings, school materials, recruitment and payment of teaching personnel is in the hands of the Ministry of Home Affairs, delegated in the Province to the governor and the regent in the district, while the Ministry of Education has to take care of educational matters, like the curriculum, training of teaching personnel supervision and the provision of learning material.

Experience has taught that good personal understanding and co-ordination in planning and its implementation are necessary to ensure that there is no wastage of resources. For instance, in one of the villages near the city of Palangka Raya I noted a new school building of three rooms, which has been empty for two years, because of lack of pupils. The building had been erected upon the instructions of the head of the subdistrict, without consulting the office of education.

Another case is that of the village of Sungai Gohong, also in the area of the study. It is a small village with a population of about 300-350. It has a school with two rooms, 53 pupils enrolled in Grades II-VI and two teachers. Last year no Grade I was created due to shortage of pupils and rooms. In the same village the local authority set up a new school with three rooms and four teachers, and as this school had also to be kept functioning, 23 children of whom 50 per cent were under-aged had been recruited. This means 4 teachers and three rooms for one class. It is obvious that especially in remote areas, lack of understanding and co-ordination among local decision-makers may be a serious constraint for the supply of school building and material and also in the learning and teaching process. Another condition in Central Kalimantan that also hampers school programming is the unequal distribution of administrative and educational offices. As the Governor only has an educational office at provincial level, his channel of command is via the district and sub-district heads. There are 81 administrative subdistricts, while the Ministry of Education has only 36 offices at subdistrict level. This means that one educational office has to take care of 2 or more administrative areas.

Primary school characteristics in Central Kalimantan: Samples: Reports of visits to schools (20) in the subdistricts Bukit Batu, Pahandut and Middle Kapuas. I visited this area twice. My recent visit in January 1979 was devised to obtain the approval of these schools for a coming comprehensive study of the experience of small schools which will be carried out by a team from Palangka Raya under the direction of the Centre of Educational Innovation and Technology, Jakarta. My previous visit was more or less an identification study trip of the existence of small schools in that area. School: Marang, about 50 km from Palangka Raya.

The village is a small settlement of about 45 families with a total population of 299 people. It is located on the banks of one of the tributaries of the Kahayan. The people earn their living by fishing, foraging and small gardening. Living standards are very low.

Enrolment in school (January 1979)

1		2		3		4		5		6		Class	Teachers
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
4	6	8	7	8	5	5	4	2	3	5	1	No. of pupils	3

This school has 3 teachers, the principal and his wife, and a young newly appointed "stranger" from Java, who just a couple of days before my visit, married a local girl.

Two buildings are used, one for classes 1 and 5 taught by the principal, and classes 2 and 4 taught by his wife. The other building is for classes 3 and 6 where the active young teacher has for 4 months been demonstrating his teaching ability to his pupils. The combination of the classes into 1+5, 2+4 and 3+6 was the result of a teachers' meeting and their willingness to teach the respective classes. The school was improved since my first visit in September last year; it looked cleaner, the previously empty walls were hung with maps, charts and pictures of the President and the Vice President. But all the attendance boards in the classes were still clean, as during my first visit. With the exception of the woman teacher, who looked more like a baby sitter, the other two teachers were active, especially the young man. He had experience with children in Java, with whom he used to compare his new students. According to him the academic level of his present students was about two years behind their fellows in Java. I was afraid that he was beginning to suffer from "nostalgia". This reminded me of experience in Irian Jaya with teachers recruited from Java and Sumatra, working in the Central Highlands. In the five years between 1963 and 1968, not less than 25 young new teachers had become victims of severe loneliness and the harshness of nature; 7 died, 5 became totally mad and the rest were psychologically very unstable.

As concerns the teaching, it was still the classical method, verbal and too little self-activity on the part of the children. Although two of the teachers (the couple) had received some training in two in-service training courses, they seemed still to have difficulties in implementing the new curricula, partly because of the shortage of learning materials - the books as used by Jakarta were not yet completely available - and they had not yet had any training on how to handle multiple classes. The academic level of the children was indeed very low. Only about 60 per cent of the syllabus could be carried out, said the principal. The diagnostic test as issued by the Minister of Education in December 1978 proved that only 45 per cent of the given learning content had been absorbed. The monthly participation rate was about 94 per cent and less in the rainy months. The school, like the whole village, suffers periodically from floods The principal told of a plan to move the village including the school to a higher site about 2 km from the present one.

In the village I met a lot of young people who were drop-outs from the educational system: the school had not been able to operate for some years in the past, because no teacher was available. Some girls had left school because of marriage. According to the village chief, although already some children from the neighbouring settlement are joining the school, there are still a lot of children

who do not have the opportunity to study, because of the reluctance of parents to send their young children by boat. Another reason is, as I heard later, that the parents had no time for such an activity, as they were fully occupied with earning their living.

School: Petuk Katimpun, subdistrict Pahandut. Enrolment in school (January 1979)

1		2		3		4		5		6		Class	Teachers
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
-	-	8	6	9	-	12	-	3	2	6	2	No. of Pupils	2 (1)

The number of students was 48, consisting of 38 boys and 10 girls. Dean Nielson, who visited this school in June 1978, mentioned a bigger number, but apparently the situation has changed. The school has a new room beside the old one and was not so crowded as before. I saw also a row of new desks in one of the rooms. But the wall decoration was the same as elsewhere. Blackboards, printed charts and pictures, sent by the office in Palangka Raya, an attendance board each for all the classes. This school did not operate a first grade, due to the fact that there were not enough "eligible" children to form a class at the beginning of the school year in January 1978. But in July 1979, 20 children will be ready to join. Nielson mentioned the number of three teachers. But meanwhile one left a month ago and just a week before my coming the Javanese one had to be brought to hospital due to lunacy. The remaining one was the principal. This man seemed to be active, even too active. Besides his profession as a teacher and principal of the school, he also functioned as the secretary of the village and adviser of the chief, a very important person in the society. His school office was at the same time the office of the village. I could not see very much learning and teaching activities. When I entered the principal's office, a special hall between the two classrooms, the principal was engaged in a serious discussion with a group of people of the village. Later I heard that the villagers were very concerned with two things. One was about the sickness of the Javanese teacher and the other was about the news of a regulation prohibiting foraging for firewood in the forests, since a company had been set up and was to begin operating in the area.

Three of the five classes had been sent home after being kept busy with sport and reading. The remaining were the fifth and the sixth grade, studying in one room, separated by a shoulder-high partition, the sixth grade silently reading books on social studies and the fifth doing nothing but waiting patiently for the teacher. Figures and formula on the blackboard indicated that the teacher was teaching mathematics.

From the reports I received in the district inspector's office, this teacher had been noted as effective, diligent and active, but too much engaged in other development sectors, a common phenomenon for the social rôle of teachers in rural development projects.

School: Henda, Subdistrict Upper Kapuas Enrolment:

1		2		3		4		5		6		Class	Teachers
M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F		
8	5	5	7	8	7	3	4	3	3	4	1	No. of pupils	3

The physical conditions of the school and also the village were almost similar to the other examples. I was attracted by two happenings which I had not seen in the other schools. One was an out-of-class activity and the other was a specific organisation of the classes.

As my coming had not been notified in advance, I decided to stay for a while in the boat and watched.I saw a group of 3 boys sitting wrapped up repairing a fish net in a corner of the school yard another three were watering young cassave plants, two girls were cleaning the classroom, and some others were with the teacher, who stood there with a book in his hand. It was the fifth and the sixth grades.

I was welcomed by the principal later, and on my request the other two teachers went back to their classes to continue teaching. The principal had no class as the first and the second grades had been sent home. Looking into the empty class I did not see the usual partition. "We decided to break off the partitions, as they hinder us in our teaching," the principal said. The seats in every class were so arranged that two rows faced a blackboard in one direction and the other two with the blackboard in the opposite. The teachers used to teach walking in the narrow aisle between the adjoining rows of seats. In each of the two classes the lectures ran simultaneously. There were books for every child. All three teachers were young and enthusiastic. As I saw, they were trying to teach in the way prescribed by the curricula. Some more training and assistance might be helpful for them.

Note: The choice of these three cases has been done deliberately so as to show

Sample 1 : Marang as an illustration of the common school in remote areas in Central Kalimantan.

Sample 2 : Petuk Katimpun means to show the social status and functions as expected by society from a teacher in a remote and small settlement. The example is an extreme one.

Sample 3 : Henda demonstrates that inspired by the curriculum and the follow-up upgrading courses, the desire for educational innovation has been growing, especially among the young workers.

Summary and conclusions

The conditions of the schools in the study area could be summarized as follows:

1. The Organization

(a) At Central Level

Ministerial responsibilities: The national pattern of responsibilities of school education at ministerial level could be described in brief as follows: The ministers e. g. the Minister of Home Affairs and the

Table 1. Recapitulation of ratios in primary schools in Cntral Kalimantan, 1978 per educational sub-district office

No.	Names of districts and sub-districts	Student vs Teacher	School vs Building	School vs Rooms	School vs Grades	School vs Students	School vs Teachers	Building vs Rooms	Rooms vs Grades	Building vs Students	Building vs Teachers	Rooms vs Grades	Rooms vs Students	Rooms vs Teachers	Grades vs Students	Grades vs Teachers
1.	Palangka Raya: Pahandut	20:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:136	1:6	1:6	1:7	1:235	1:11	1:1	1:37	1:1	1:29	1:1
2.	Kuala Lapuas	25:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:110	1:3	1:4	1:5	1:118	1:4	1:1	1:28	1:1	1:20	1:1
	2. 1 Pujon	27:1	2:1	1:4	1:4	1:88	1:3	1:11	1:12	1:143	1:8	1:1	1:21	1:1	1:19	1:1
	2. 2 Selat	44:1	1:1	1:2	1:3	1:122	1:4	1:2	1:2	1:155	1:3	1:1	1:53	1:1	1:32	1:1
	2. 3 Kahayan Hilir	24:1	1:1	1:2	1:5	1:99	1:4	1:3	1:5	1:108	1:4	1:1	1:33	1:1	1:19	1:1
	2. 4 Kapise Barat	26:1	1:1	1:2	1:4	1:98	1:3	1:3	1:4	1:104	1:4	1:1	1:34	1:1	1:10	1:1
	2. 5 Kapuas Kurung	28:1	1:1	1:1	1:4	1:88	1:3	1:4	1:7	1:145	1:5	1:1	1:20	1:1	1:18	1:1
	2. 6 Kapuas Kuala	45:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:132	1:3	1:4	1:4	1:139	1:3	1:1	1:44	1:1	1:31	1:1
	2. 7 Kapuas Hilir	20:1	1:1	1:4	1:5	1:107	1:5	1:6	1:129	1:6	1:1	1:1	1:25	1:1	1:18	1:1
	2. 8 Manuhing	13:1	1:1	1:3	1:3	1:43	1:3	1:3	1:4	1:46	1:3	1:1	1:12	1:1	1:10	1:1
	2. 9 Bahsma	19:1	1:1	1:4	1:4	1:84	1:4	1:4	1:4	1:74	1:3	1:1	1:18	1:1	1:26	1:1
	2. 10 Tumbang Jutuh	18:1	1:1	1:3	1:5	1:96	1:3	1:2	1:5	1:92	1:3	1:1	1:32	1:1	1:13	1:2
	2. 11 Tenat	20:1	1:1	1:4	1:4	1:87	1:4	1:5	1:5	1:98	1:4	1:1	1:18	1:1	1:18	1:1
	2. 12 Kurun	22:1	1:2	1:5	1:4	1:102	1:4	1:15	1:4	1:102	1:4	1:1	1:18	1:1	1:21	1:1
3.	Barite Selatan	24:1	1:1	1:2	1:5	1:126	1:5	1:3	1:6	1:144	1:6	1:1	1:42	1:2	1:22	1:1
	3. 1 Dusun Selatan	23:1	1:2	1:3	1:5	1:143	1:6	1:2	1:4	1:104	1:4	1:1	1:38	1:1	1:24	1:1
	3. 2 Dusun Utara	26:1	1:1	1:1	1:5	1:137	1:5	1:3	1:11	1:263	1:10	1:3	1:90	1:3	1:23	1:1
	3. 3 Duan Hilir	33:1	1:1	1:3	1:5	1:146	1:4	1:3	1:4	1:123	1:3	1:1	1:38	1:1	1:25	1:1
	3. 4 Dusun Tengah	25:1	1:1	1:1	1:5	1:130	1:5	1:3	1:10	1:228	1:9	1:3	1:73	1:2	1:22	1:1
	3. 5 Dusun Timn	17:1	1:1	1:4	1:6	1:105	1:5	1:3	1:5	1:95	1:5	1:1	1:24	1:1	1:16	1:1
	3. 6 Benua Lima	17. 1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:80	1:4	1:3	1:4	1:76	1:4	1:1	1:24	1:1	1:17	1:1
4.	Barite Utara	24:1	1:1	1:2	1:5	1:126	1:5	1:3	1:6	1:144	1:6	1:1	1:42	1:2	1:22	1:1
	4. 1 Laung Tuhup	40:1	1:1	1:1	1:3	1:94	1:2	1:3	1:6	1:134	1:3	1:2	1:44	1:1	1:21	1:1
	4. 2 Teweh Tengah	20:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:84	1:4	1:4	1:6	1:104	1:5	1:1	1:23	1:1	1:16	1:1
	4. 3 Kurung Raya	30:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:95	1:3	1:3	1:5	1:108	1:3	1:1	1:27	1:1	1:21	1:1
5.	Keta Waringin Timur	30:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:107	1:3	1:3	1:4	1:108	1:3	1:2	1:33	1:1	1:23	1:1
	5. 1 N. B. Ketapang	34:1	1:1	1:2	1:5	1:178	1:5	1:3	1:6	1:199	1:5	1:1	1:63	1:1	1:32	1:1
	5. 2 Mentaya Hilir	30:1	1:1	1:3	1:5	1:160	1:5	1:4	1:5	1:179	1:5	1:1	1:42	1:1	1:30	1:1
	5. 3 Keta Besi	27:1	1:1	1:2	1:4	1:85	1:3	1:2	1:4	1:86	1:3	1:1	1:30	1:1	1:19	1:1
	5. 4 M. H. Kuala	29:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:95	1:3	1:3	1:4	1:98	1:3	1:2	1:30	1:1	1:21	1:1
	5. 5 Sereyan Tengah	44:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:95	1:3	1:3	1:4	1:104	1:3	1:1	1:31	1:1	1:21	2:1
	5. 6 Katingan Kuala	24:1	1:1	1:1	1:4	1:96	1:4	1:4	1:5	1:121	1:5	1:1	1:28	1:1	1:24	1:1
	5. 7 Sereyan Kuala	23:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:82	1:3	1:4	1:5	1:103	1:4	1:1	1:24	1:2	1:17	1:1
	5. 8 Katingar Hui	30:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:117	1:3	1:4	1:5	1:88	1:2	1:1	1:19	1:1	1:17	1:1
	5. 9 Katingn Tengah	30:1	1:1	1:3	1:4	1:117	1:3	1:3	1:4	1:128	1:4	1:1	1:35	1:1	1:126	1:1
	5. 10 Katingn Hilar	28:1	1:1	1:3	1:5	1:107	1:3	1:1	1:2	1:161	1:2	1:1	1:33	1:1	1:21	1:1
6.	Kota Waringin Barat	36:1	12:1	1:1	1:4	1:129	1:3	1:4	1:10	1:138	1:8	1:2	1:68	1:1	1:30	1:1
	6. 1 Arut Selatan	20:1	1:1	1:2	1:4	1:84	1:4	1:3	1:8	1:158	1:7	1:2	1:39	1:1	1:18	1:1
	6. 2 Nanga Bulik	43:1	3:1	1:1	1:4	1:31	1:3	1:4	1:13	1:452	1:10	1:3	1:101	1:2	1:32	1:1
	6. 3 Suka Kara	35:1	2:2	1:2	1:3	1:111	1:3	1:16	1:9	1:313	1:8	1:1	1:52	1:1	1:34	1:1

Minister of Education and Culture (E & C) are responsible for the supply, enrolments, maintenance and development of primary education. It is the task of the Minister of Home Affairs to provide the buildings and equipment, part of the learning material, physical maintenance and the recruiting and payment of teachers and principals, i. e. the administration of the school personnel and logistics, within the framework of the act of autonomy. The Minister of E & C has responsibility for the curriculum, the learning and teaching regulations, the training of personnel, the supervision, the supply of textbooks, the organizing of examinations etc. It could be considered as the educational part of the school administration.

Secondary and Higher Education is fully in the hands of the Minister of E & C.

A third operational ministry in the area is the Ministry of Religious Affairs, which takes care of the religious schools. As part of the curriculum of these schools covers general education, according to an interministerial agreement, the Minister of E.& C has also to assist the religious schools with manuals, textbooks, training of teachers and has to allow participation of the pupils in the final examination under certain conditions.

(b) At Provincial level

By the act of autonomy of 1951 implementation of the responsibilities of the Minister of Home Affairs has been delegated to the Governor, Head of the Provincial Government. An office in the governorate, called "The Provincial Office of Primary Education" deals with executing Regional Policy.

According to Ministerial decree No 079/0/74 the Minister of E & C delegates his executing power in the province to the Head of the Provincial Educational Office. This office is considered as the real executive unit of education at primary and secondary level. The head of this office is assisted by a Secretary, a planning division, sectoral head inspectors and inspectors. He is directly responsible to the Minister of E & C, while the sectoral head inspectors and the head of the planning division fulfill their job under the responsibility of directorates at central level, and submit their reports via the Head of the Educational Office. Higher education is more independent and operates under the supervision of the Directorate General and is co-ordinated by the Regional Co-ordinator for Universities and Higher Institutes.

The Ministry of Religious Affairs also has its office at provincial level and operates independently. There is no official regulation for co-ordination among these three units mentioned. It is only stated that the Head of the Provincial Educational Office ought to give advice to the Governor in educational matters. Lack of or insufficient co-ordination between the Provincial Educational Office and the Primary educational office in the governorate might cause harm to the primary schools in the area in such ways as ineffective planning, neglect of the teachers etc.

(c) At subdistrict and district level

The Ministry of E & C has both an office at district and subdistrict level. The head of the district office is assisted by a small staff for general administration, finance and personnel and a technical staff consisting of two or three inspectors. These inspectors have to deal with primary education, sport, social communication and cultural affairs. At secondary level he just has to exercise the rôle of co-ordinator. The subdistrict personnel consist of a head, assisted by 2 or 3 local inspectors and one or two people for the administration. As the deconcentration of power is terminated at the

provincial office, these two smaller units can be considered as extension bodies, to carry out the commands and instructions from the Provincial office. The Ministry of Home Affairs has no full fledged office at district level. Care of primary education, as far as concerns the interests of the ministry, is mainly entrusted to specially appointed officials.

2. The Administration

(a) Educational planning

Before the implementation of the first five year plan, i.e., before 1968, educational administration was very strongly centralized. The provincial offices and other lower institutes were no more than executive agencies of the Central Government, having no power of policy and decision-making, including planning. It can be easily understood, that in such a vast country as Indonesia, consisting of thousands of islands with various geographical, economic and social conditions, some of them very different from each other, no suitable and firm central planning could be set up and implemented. With the increase of volume and intensity of activities all over the country, the Central Government, i.e. the Ministry of E & C became aware of the need for valid and suitable planning of operations. The Ministerial decree of 079/0/74 adopted the establishment of a planning bureau within the secretary general at central level and a planning division in the Provincial education office, as part of the implementation of deconcentration of power. This was an achievement indeed, but due to fast rate of progress during the last five years, including that of the remote rural areas, the need for extension of deconcentration to the district level has become urgently felt.

(b) Monitoring and supervision

Monitoring of educational activities and achievements is carried out by the inspectors and division heads as a part of their duty. Schools have to submit a monthly, a four-monthly and a yearly report to their inspectors. The local inspector has to make a summary of the reports and send this to his superiors.

It is decreed that principals have to present the reports every month at the time they come to the educational office to get their salary. But because of problems of transportation and budget, the reports are sometimes available only after three or four months. In the rainy season when the region suffers from monsoonfloods, travelling might be very dangerous and that is why teachers may be able to travel down to the city only two or four times a year to get their salary. It is not surprising, that school reports and statistical data in the educational office in the area are mostly not up to date. The current monitoring system does not work effectively.

Supervision in the area is no better, even worse. Although new regulations on the character and the scope of supervisory practices have been issued, it is evident that in the case study areas the old pattern of inspection is still in force and badly exercised, as the school inspectors are still the old type. An inspector is still considered as a man, who comes and visits a school to control and search keenly for weaknesses and faults of teachers, instead of a man who willingly hears the complaints of the teachers and is ready to help them to solve their job problems.

Supervision activities in remote areas have generally to confront a lot of problems such

as distance, travel facilities and budget. In the area of study, these becomes worse as the ratio between the number of schools to manage and that of the supervisory personnel is very low. One inspector in several areas has to supervise 50 or more schools. Nielson's report about a school in the area that had not been visited by an inspector for 11 years, is only one example. The usual rate in Java, where conditions are relatively better, is 1 : 20.

(c) The Management of the teaching force

The basic education of the teachers: Eventhough it is necessary that a teacher in the remote areas should be able to cope with the specific conditions of schools in rural areas in general, basic education for teachers is the same all over the country and uses the same curriculum and syllabi. In the current curriculum of teacher training colleges no special attention has been paid to this problem, although more than 70 per cent of primary schools are located in the rural areas. That is why only diligent and intelligent teachers with good health and a sense of innovation and a good capability for adaptation can achieve success in the remote areas. The harder the conditions, the higher the qualification required. But it is very difficult to get such teachers, as they usually prefer to stay and work in the cities. The rural areas have to be satisfied with less qualified teachers, most of them accepting their appointments just to get a job for a living. Here is an ironic phenomenon, that just in schools in the most disadvantaged areas with the most difficult problems teaching has to be carried out by the least qualified teachers. It could also be considered a stupid blunder of administration to punish a bad and disloyal teacher by transferring him to the remote areas.

Recruiting procedures of teachers: Every year the Governor of each Province has to submit a budget-proposal to Central Government to get funds to recruit and pay new teachers needed for primary education in his region. The recruitment and payment of teachers at secondary and higher level are regulated by the Ministry of E & C itself and carried out by the Provincial Educational Office or by the Rector of the University.

The Central Government has the authority to decide how much subsidy is available for each of the provinces. Based on the amount of the subsidy the governorate educational office recruit a number of new teachers. When the number of applicants is higher than the available money, all the applicants have to pass a screening test, exercised by the Governorate with the assistance of the Provincial Education Office. A problem to be faced by the less rich provinces is sometimes the lack of travel costs for the transfer of the newly appointed teachers to the location of the post. This might be the cause of a delay of a couple of months or even up to one year or more. It is usual in these provinces for a newly appointed teacher to pay his travel costs himself. An emergency regulation to speed up school participation and enrolment, has been issued to provide the necessary budget for buildings or for payment and travel costs of newly appointed teachers.

At the time when the national programme was proclaimed in 1973 to increase the educational participation rate of children of the age 7 to 12 years from about 64 per cent up to 85 per cent during the years 1973-1978, Central Kalimantan faced serious need for teachers. There were not enough applicants available in the area, as the enrolment of the current existing teacher training schools was very small. During the first four years not less than 400 new teachers had to be obtained from

ANNEX I
THE SMALL SCHOOL SYSTEM AS AN ALTERNATIVE IN ORDER TO MEET NEEDS

By Presidential decree it has been determined that by the end of the Third Five Year Development Plan (1984) all school-aged children should be offered school opportunities in order to bring about universal compulsory education.

It has already been stated that by 1979 a primary school participation rate of 85 per cent had been reached. To increase this rate to 100 per cent, some specific problems will have to be faced. One of the problems will be the presence of a number of children living in small settlements in remote and isolated regions. It would be economically impossible to provide standard schools, with 6 rooms and six teachers, for such areas. It has been noted that local authorities and private groups in several provinces of outer Java have established small-size schools to match the needs for education in the remote areas. The existence of such small-size schools with the general characteristics, as mentioned on page 31 of this paper, is high in provinces with similar conditions to Central Kalimantan. It fluctuates between 15 and 40 per cent of the total number of schools in those areas.

From the legal point of view the existence of small-size schools is a deviation from the national educational policy. It has been considered as an emergency policy. But the history of small schools teaches us that a small school might be the only effective means to provide education in those areas. In this case there is a lot of information available from the missionaries operating in Kalimantan and Irian Jaya.

But because of their location in isolated places with bad transport and communication, low economic and cultural standards, the problem of how to get (good) teachers etc., the operational capacity of most of these schools needs urgent and wide ranging assistance.

An experiment

To establish what might be an effective small school system feasible for nation-wide dissemination, the Minister of Education has issued a decree setting up an in-depth study in the form of an experiment in some districts, with priority for Central Kalimantan. This experiment has been entrusted to the Office of Research and Development of Education and Culture of the Ministry and will be carried out under the direction of the Innotech Centre.

101

The objectives of the experiment are two: (i) to draw up the criteria of prototype and a model of a small school adapted to conditions in Indonesia; (ii) to submit a draft of the supporting regulations to the decision-makers so as to fit the small school into the existing national system as a full-fledged educational unit.

The experiment has at the least to be able to give adequate and correct answers to a series of questions, like:

(a) What actually is a small school in Indonesia? - a matter of definition and model

(b) What is the minimum size for the establishment of a small school?

(c) What teacher-pupil ratio should be aimed at?

(d) What kind of delivery system would be the most effective?

(e) What rôle should a small school play for those unable to attend, because of: (i) lack of transport and (ii) irregular attendance due to seasonal or economic demands of parents?

(f) What kind of incentives are needed to attract good and qualified teachers and principals?

(g) Should materials and equipment be provided on the same basis as for the standard school?

(h) What support services should be developed for the teachers who are professionally isolated?

(i) What standards are required in terms of buildings and facilities for small schools?

(j) What kind of teacher training is desirable for teachers taking up appointments in small schools?

(k) To what extent is it necessary to make more flexible curriculum and timetable requirements for small schools than for complete primary schools?

(l) Who should make decisions on each of the above matters? etc.

Three critical points in this experiment might be considered: (i) the formulation of the design of the experiment, (ii) the output of the experiment in the form of a prototype, and (iii) the creation of the model, which would be tried out and comprehensively evaluated, before dissemination, which would have to be implemented in stages.

At this moment a series of activities are going on to gain adequate data for the formulation of the experimental design and simultaneously to create favourable conditions for the accomplishment of the experiment.

In this period of preparation three studies have been designed, to wit: a study of school characteristics in the area, a study of the current regulations and a study of the experience of the presently operating small size primary schools.

Favourable conditions may be established by activities like an acceptance campaign and provision of the necessary budget and personnel. As an alternative, experiments might be conducted with the self-instructional learning system for the three higher classes (grade IV, V and VI) which has been successfully carried out in another project, known as the PANONG or IMPACT, in Solo (Central Java) and now forms the model for Bali.

And for the grades I, II and III, as these will imply smaller children, experiments might be tried with the multi-class teaching system, while especially for the third grade steps could be taken to prepare them for the self-instructional system.

other provinces. It was rather curious that one hundred teachers were sent from another small disadvantaged province, e. g. Central Sulawesi, which was and is still in need of teachers itself. The surplus was caused by the national restrictions of the ratio of pupils per class as 1:40. As about 30 per cent of the schools in this Province were and are schools with enrolments below 100 per school, Central Kalimantan was allowed to appoint those 100 new teachers.

By increasing the enrolment of the 5 teacher training schools in the area as from 1977 Central Kalimantan will be able to supply the necessary teachers for primary education. For secondary and higher education most of the teachers and lecturers have to come from other provinces. The increase of the number of teachers also includes an increase of women teachers, a good thing, but it will create such problems as over supply to town schools and other problems relating to maternity etc.

Another problem of the managing of the teaching force in a remote area, such as Central Kalimantan is that of the recruitment of teachers from other areas. This problem concerns mostly those teachers recruited from more developed areas and where the culture differs from that of the Dayaks in Central Kalimantan. The change of living conditions and habits might be depressing and too hard to bear. It is said that about 25 per cent of the "newcomers" have left and gone back to their area of origin, while some others used to prolong their yearly vacation by a couple of weeks or months, leaving their classes or schools neglected. A better and well programmed mental and physical preparation in the donor provinces might be recommended.

Teachers in-service and upgrading courses: During the last five years a well programmed agenda of teachers in-service and upgrading courses has been issued and implemented. The target has been to give more professional confidence, knowledge and skills to handle a modern educational system as regards management and teaching techniques required by the new curriculum. Selected inspectors, principals and teachers have been summoned to Jakarta or other centers to be trained. Back in their province they have to organize courses in centres at subdistrict level. Every teacher has to follow a yearly course of twelve days continuously or twice for a week.

According to the head of the primary education sector at the educational provincial office, all teachers in Central Kalimantan have had their turn, in mathematics, language, natural science or social sciences. Handling of the various books for the fields of study seemed to get priority in the courses. But as the curriculum itself is a national standardized one, the teachers in the remote areas still need more information and guidance.

The language used in the books for instance is "Bahasa Indonesian" coloured by the writers, most of them residing in Jakarta, while the "Bahasa Indonesian" in the several areas is of course intermingled with the local one. This concerns also examples used in the books. Books on natural science for instance dealing with modern technology might be very strange for the pupils in the remote areas.

Enrolment in primary education: A standard primary school as prescribed by national guidelines has to meet the following ratios:

- School vs Population = 1 : 1, 500
- School vs Classrooms = 1 : 6+

- School vs grades = 1 : 6
- School vs teachers = 1 : 6+, as the principal is usual released from teaching work.
- Class/grade vs students = 1 : 40

Statistical data and study information indicate that the current situation in Central Kalimantan deviates from the central guidelines. A little less that 50 per cent could be considered as incomplete units, with characteristics like :

- Numbers of students in each class are mostly lower than 50 per cent of capacity.
- At certain periods the enrolling of a new class has to be put back to the following study year, because of lack of sufficient number of pupils.
- Because of shortage of teachers, one teacher in most of the schools has to mind more than one class/grade.

These considerations may have more fatal consequences for the whole system of management, such as teacher distribution, lack of facilities and incentives for the teacher acting as principal of the school, the provision of budgets, the supply of materials etc.

To ease the need, the regional authorities have issued some regulations which increase the ratio of class vs students from 1:40 to 1:22 and gathers some neighbouring schools into units, using the terms of mother school, branch schools, distant classes etc. These measures will not cure the root evil and a deeper approach has to be attempted (see Annex I).

The curriculum: It is a credit to the Directorate General of Primary and Secondary Education that after years of experiments and experience at last it has been able to set up comprehensive and complete national curricula for primary and secondary schools. These curricula have been sanctioned by the decree of the Minister of Education and Culture on January 17, 1975 and are therefore known as curricula 1975. The Primary school curriculum consists of 25 - 26 chapters and each chapter has been printed and published in the form of a booklet. Curriculum 1975 does not only deal with the syllabi as the preceding curricula did, but it is a complete educational manual for administrators, supervisors, principals, teachers, pupils and even for parents. The rôle of each agency is clearly defined in the curriculum. Every instructional unit is well provided with adequate didactic and methodological guidance. A special chapter on administration and supervision deals with job descriptions of agencies and personnel, guidance of monitoring and reporting with the necessary forms, such as time-tables, checklist for guidance and counselling etc., etc. In short these curricula have the character of a complete scientific operational concept. But operationalizing a concept is not an easy job. It needs a good knowledge of the issues, technical skills and time to process, especially for those personnel who are working in disadvantaged areas. Non-educational problems have to be overcome, such as the supply of equipment and learning material, inadequate qualifications and shortage of personnel, budget, etc., etc.

According to the schedule this curriculum should have been in force all over Indonesia in the year 1978. But as described in the report, the remote areas still have to be developed in order to be able to compete with the model-schools in urban areas. There is no doubt that this curriculum still has its weaknesses. In a country like Indonesia, with very diverse patterns of culture and sources,

local interests are not always on the same lines as the national ones. And the question is not only that the national curriculum has to be implemented all over Indonesia but we have to think of effectiveness and efficiency. In this regard, there is no doubt that the tackling of educational problems in remote areas needs a specific study and approach in general.

The supply of building, equipment and learning material: During the Sixties when the need for education began to be felt in the disadvantaged areas, while there was still no firm national educational planning and sufficient budget, the supply of school-buildings, equipment and material proceeded as follows:

(a) The desire to have a school was usually raised as a proposal in a community meeting, either at village, subdistrict or district level.

(b) With the acceptance of the proposal a committee was formed with the terms to approach the local educational office and at the same time a special working group was given the task to prepare a building including the necessary equipment and sometimes also lodging for the coming teacher.

(c) If this preparatory work had been done and approved by the local educational inspector, the school could begin to operate. In the case of a primary school the inspector had to submit a report and a proposal for establishment to the governor or head of the Province. The approval by the latter authority included also recognition of the school as a government institute. The governorate took over care of the maintenance of school personnel and the learning material, while the Ministry of Education had to look after the educational part.

The maintenance of the building and equipment usually remained the care of the community. The parents association had to carry out this job. So the conditions of the buildings depended on the readiness and activity of the association and of course of the available budget. There was no standard architecture for school buildings. A village school building became more or less a barometer of the stage of welfare and the attitude of the community. This had been the practice for more than 15 years.

With the implementation of the five year plan, when achievements have been made in the national economic sector which also increased the national educational budget, a new policy was formulated to supply school buildings fully at the expense of the national budget. By Presidential instruction thousands of new buildings have been built or rehabilitated in the last ten years. The supply of school buildings especially in the primary sector has become a national project to support the target to give educational opportunity to all children of the age 7 to 12 years. This policy is a welcome solution especially for the poor and disadvantaged districts or villages. It lessens part of the educational burden to be borne by the parents. The community only has to reserve a certain area where the school building will be built. But there are still a lot of programmes and activities in the process of the education, in which parents and society should be encouraged to participate.

The budget: The following Table illustrates the amount spent on operating costs of primary education in Central Kalimantan during the fiscal year 1977-1978. The amount for maintenance and materials proved to be very low, compared with the amount for personnel.

Table 2. The budget for primary education in Central Kalimantan during the fiscal year 1977-1978

Operational costs:	Rupees
- Wages and allowances	1 800 000 000
- Rice subsidy	270 000 000
- Honoraria	10 000 000
- Material	89 000 000
- Maintenance	30 000 000
- Service, health, travel and mutations	55 000 000
- Personnel welfare	8 000 000
Total	2 262 000 000
Development budget	161 000 000
Operational costs in Provincial and District offices	77 310 000
Total	2 500 000 000

1. Figures from the Educational Service, Governor's Office.

Recommendations

Remote rural areas merit a just and special consideration. Because of the disadvantages, either geographical, socio-cultural or economic, remote rural areas are usually considered just as an additional part of the country, more or less forgotten and more of a burden than profit. Central administrators and reconstruction planners pay hardly any attention to the existence of these areas. This kind of policy undoubtedly results in the widening of the gap and sharpening of inequalities between the urban and remote rural areas. The urban will become more and more modernized and advanced, while the remote areas will fall more and more behind and might function as a kind of reservation to the culture of the past. The case of the "Human Zoo" in Central Irian-Jaya is known all over the world. But in this age when modern technology touches every part of the realm, history has learned that neglect of the rural areas could lead to political and social disturbances, such as riots etc. It is why for the success of the national reconstruction programme, including that of the educational sector, a just and special attitude to these remote areas should be developed. The rural

areas form the largest part of the country and have the same obligations as the urban, and therefore an equal and appropriate policy should be exercised in order to upgrade them as a partner of the urban area within the framework of national development.

The supply of education in the remote rural areas should be organised within the framework of overall rural development: As one of the essential functions of education is to develop the interaction process between man and environment, the introduction of school education particularly in the remote areas cannot be separates from the whole pattern of the local life and living and at the same time it has to meet clearly formulated objectives. Here appear again the principles of interaction and interdependency between the education sector and overall rural development programmes. All the ministries, which deal with educational programmes should come together and led by the chairman of the development board of the district draw up an integrated (educational) programme for the area. This interdisciplinery approach of planning and execution of programmes is undoubtedly necessary to avoid waste. The head of the district educational office should chair and be responsible for the success of the operations.

Educational needs of the areas should be studied: National principles and approaches can only be used to meet rural needs as far as these are related to the national interest. But specific rural needs merit special consideration and approaches. It is fundamental for the success of educational operations that the latter needs should be clearly identified and integrated in overall planning as a major input. Operational research should identify the plus factors besides the 3 R's.

The administration

Sufficient authority should be delegated to the districts: One of the common characteristics of the remote rural areas is the lack of an effective system of transportation and communication. This might cause delay in the flow of papers and messages from and to the schools. To overcome part of this crucial problem a certain authority should be delegated, including decision-making on local policy and budgets. The head of the district educational office should, for instance, be authorized to issue provisional arrangements for transfer of teachers, modify general guidelines so as to adjust them to local conditions, adapt the time table, terms of reference of the teachers etc.

There is an urgent need for a simple but effective and efficient monitoring and evaluation system in the remote rural areas: A Kathmandu IIEP Seminar participant from India, described schools in remote rural areas as schools with the least efficiency. All the more reason to search for and organise an effective system of administration. Whatever that system might be, the following basic requirements should be considered :

(a) the system should be simple, not too complicated and sophisticated, in order to make it easy to interpret by the administration and teaching personnel.

(b) the system should be practical and easy to implement, to avoid waste of time and material.

(c) a questionnaire system of the closed type might be tried out.

(d) the necessary forms should be made from strong paper, like "manila" for instance.

107

Table 3. Enrolment of schools at primary and secondary level in Central Kalimantan, 1978[1]

No.	Level of education	Study years	Number of schools	Number of teachers	Number of students	Participation rate
1	Primary Education	6				80.27 %
	Primary schools		1 206	5 219	127 567	
2	Lower secondary education	3				34.16 %
	a. General education		131	1 302	18 486	
	b. Economics		10	51	280	
	c. Home economics (girls)		3	20	109	
	d. Technical education		3	20	230	
3A	Higher secondary education	3				19.46 %
	a. General education		16	248	3 214	
	b. Economics		14	212	2 950	
	c. Home economics (girls)		2	20	132	
	d. Technical education		2	36	376	
3B	Teachers' education	3				
	a. General education		5	82	1 294	
	b. Education for sports		1	11	266	

[1] Figures from: "Statiatik Pesekelalahan", Ministry of Education.

(e) The old idea of a "to and fro" travelling report bag could be considered again, i.e. one bag with a set of reports and blanco's is in the district office, one remains in the school and the third is the travelling one. This system will guarantee that the school reports will be read.

The teaching personnel: Small numbers of enrolment, irregular class formations and shortage of teachers are common phenomena of remote rural schools. It is obvious that such conditions require a special attitude and adaptability in the teacher. A specific problem which the rural teacher usually has to face is the teaching of more than one class at the same time. Experience shows that only active and somewhat innovative teachers can manage to obtain success by using the traditional method of setting up partitions between the classes. Training on how to encourage students to learn by using self-instructional learning materials might be a good preparation for remote rural teachers. Another item which should be taught in the period of pre-service training is also a basic knowledge of the socio-cultural and economic conditions of remote areas and how local people solve their daily problems. These items could be integrated in the curriculum of rural teachers' training, either as a special branch or discipline in the system, or in the form of an additional course afterwards. In-service training and training on the job should be planned as a periodic regular programme of maintenance of teaching personnel. A sense of innovation and creativeness are things which should be encouraged continuously.

Social communication and community participation: Social or community participation has been considered as one of the essential factors in modern school education. In the Indonesian system it is officially stated that the responsibility for the success of national education is laid upon the shoulders of the parents, community and the government (teachers). Although education of the child is an integrated process, the rôles and responsibilities of these various agencies should be clearly identified and known by the parties. It is unjust to assume that the share of the parents and society should be limited to material support like preparing or rehabilitating of buildings and equipment or to provide some incentives for the teacher and other things like that. The parents or the community should also be involved in supervisional aspects of the learning process. Through parents' associations, parents should be invited to give certain opinions about the learning and teaching process; be encouraged to supervise the learning of their children at home, and give their children the time and opportunity to learn. Parents or other members of the family might do tutoring work. The village community as a whole should be recognized as one of the learning resources for the school.

Community leaders and skilled people could be invited to do voluntary activities to support the teachers and the children in their teaching and learning. Experiments in the Pamong Primary School system in Indonesia have been encouraging in this regard. The establishment of the so-called "PAMONG BANK", a joint enterprise of the school and the community to support the local co-operative to produce and supply school equipment has been tried out successfully in the laboratory Pamong Primary schools in Solo, Central Java.

Following this flow of ideas, three types of experiments might be taken into consideration: (i) An experiment to establish a model for grades I, II and III, managed by 2 teachers using the multiple teaching system; (ii) an experiment to establish a model for the grades IV, V and VI using the self-instructional learning system, that could be managed by one teacher; (iii) a combination of the two, managed by 3 teachers. But at this stage, all of these could be considered as basic ideas. The real result depends upon the supporting studies and the successes achieved.

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EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN THE REMOTE RURAL AREAS OF PAKISTAN

by Habibur Rehman and Mumtaz Akbar

CHAPTER I
CHARACTERISTICS

1. Brief history

Pakistan came into existence as an independant and sovereign state as a result of the partition of India in 1947 when the erstwhile colonial masters of this sub-continent concluded that they could no longer rule it directly. The partition brought in its wake innumerable tales of hardships and miseries. Not only was the newborn country confronted with setting up its infrastructure but also had to withstand and resolve problems and issues created as a result of mass migration of an unprecedented magnitude.

The new country was unique in many respects. It consisted of eastern and western wings flanking the land mass of Bharat and separated from each other by a distance of more than a thousand miles. The exodus of the more prosperous and better educated class had left behind a very weak middle class sandwiched between a very backward peasantry and a feudal elite. All the institutions and more so the educational ones were deprived of their experienced staff. The situation so created obliged the Government to undertake as a matter of urgence the accelerated promotion of existing novice hands to positions of considerable responsibilities. The whole socio-economic matrix was left in the hands of an emerging civil service possessing the least experience and competencies. So much energy was required to set the whole apparatus working again that little was left to take cognizance of contemporary developments taking place internationally. Incidentally, the 1950s was the period when historic new dimensions opened up in the domain of teaching/learning in the technically advanced countries of the world. The initial lag which has set in at the concept has its repercussions to date at the policy making as well as programme elaboration stages to a certain extent and at the planning and implementation stages to a very large extent.

2. General administrative set-up

As a result of a bitter political struggle the eastern part of the country separated itself in 1971 and is now called Bangladesh, the geographical entity of Pakistan now comprises old West Pakistan only. It is divided into four Provinces of the Punjab, the Sind, the NWFP and the Baluchistan. These Provinces vary in size as well as in population. No clear-cut geographical demarcations separate these provinces and the boundary line between the Provinces at places appears to be purely arbitrary.

Each Province is further divided for administrative purposes intc Divisions, Districts and Tehsils. These sub-units are administered by Commissioners, Deputy Commissioners and Assistant Commissioners respectively. Each Tehsil has a number of police stations to meet law and order needs. Again every Tehsil is sub-divided into a large number of Patwar Halqas for the purpose of collection of land revenue. A Patwar Halqa is the only administrative unit at the grass-roots level as distinct from the service units of schools and dispensaries.

Consistent with the general provincial administrative structure of NWFP run the tiers of the educational administration. At the provincial level there is an Educational Directorate supported by Inspectorates at the Divisional and District levels. Until very recently there was no educational-administrative office at a level lower than that of a district. However in the reorganization of the Department in January, 1979 Inspectorates have been set up at the Tehsil level with a view to decentralizing the administrative and financial powers and improving the supervision of primary schools.

To effect uniformity of policy throughout the country education has been included in the list of concurrent subjects between the Provincial and Federal Governments. Within the broad frame-work of a National Education Policy the Provinces have the freedom to interpret it according to their particular conditions. The Provincial Education Departments formulate their own plans within the framework of the National Education Plan and are provided with funds for implementation of develop-ment schemes by the Federal Government. The recurring expenditure on salaries and maintenance of educational institutions from primary through university level are met by the Provinces through their own resources and grants from the Federal Government.

The North West Frontier Province (NWFP) is a unique entity in the sense that two thirds of it known as 'NWFP settled area' is administered by a Provincial Government while the one third of it which lies along the border of Afghanistan is under the direct administrative control of the Federal Government and is known as a Federally Administered Tribal Area (FATA). The educational administration, however, though funded out of the Federal exchequer is linked to the Provincial Educational-Secretariat. The settled part is divided into four divisions or 12 districts or 32 Tehsils while FATA is split into 10-Tribal Agencies.

3. Geographical characteristics

NWFP lies between the latitudes of about 31° and 37° North and longitudes of 69° and 74° in the East. It covers an area of 40,000 square miles with a population of about 100 million. The average demographic density works out to be 300 persons/ sq.mile. Basic demographic data is as under:-

Basic data - NWFP and Fata

Area	= 40,000 Sq. miles
Population	= 12,000,000 - 15 % of total population of Pakistan.
Under 1-year	= 2.5 %
From 1-5 years.	= 13.8 %
From 5-14 years	= 15.5 %
Urban/rural ratio	= 18/82
Population growth rate	= 3.0 %

All the four seasons are to be met during a year though winters and summers are somewhat disproportionately long. The maximum temperature in the plains touches 50°C while the minimum may drop down to-5°C at the hill stations. Average rainfall is around 25 inches throughout the year and humidity is above 50 % only during two months in summer. Thus the climate is generally dry. The duration of the day varies from 14 hours during summer to 10 hours during winter; it snows over the mountains during extreme winter.

As to topography, 75 per cent of the total country is mountainous. These mountains, belonging to the trans-Himalayan ranges, gradually rise from low to high altitudes above the snow-line. In between the ranges lie broad valley and gorges interspersed with rivers and rivulets. The slopes of the mountains are generally green and ideal locations for terrace cultivation. Twenty-five per cent of the land lying at the foot of mountain ranges is plain and rich in deposits of alluvial soil. Of the mountainous area nearly 4 per cent constitutes rich forest wealth.

4. Socio-economic matrix

Agriculture is by far the predominent mode of production and 24 per cent of the total area is under plough. Nearly 10 per cent of the total cultivated area is irrigated while 14 per cent depends on seasonal rains. Eighty-five per cent of the total cultivated land is utilized for the production of food-grains while 11 per cent is sown with cash crops and 4 per cent with vegetables and fruits. Sugar-cane and tobacco are the major cash crops and inducement for the establishment of some agro-based industry. Although 85 per cent of the cropped area is sown to food-grain yet only 75 per cent of annual requirements are met.

Individual ownership of land is nearly as high as 95 per cent leaving only 5 per cent to fall within the ambit of collective ownership and governmand lands. From the cultivation aspect there are two types, viz, owner-operator system and landlord - tenant system. Sixty-three per cent of the total land is cultivated either by the owners themselves or under their direct supervision. The family provides most of the labour force and other resources for the operation of the farm. The remaining 37 per cent of the land is operated by tenants ; both share and fixed rentals exist.

The tenants have little security to provide a basis for incentives and high productivity while in the case of owner-operators, 90 per cent of the farms are below the subsistence size (12.5 acres) and 99 per cent are below the economic size (50 acres). Only 1 per cent of farms comprising 5 per cent of the cultivated area are of the economic size and above.

50 25 0 50 100 150 200 250 300 Kilometres

++++++ Provincial boundary

The industrial sector's growth has been so lethargic that it does not provide enough employment outlets. The agricultural labour force is increasing rapidly and pressing hard for the limited land area. The new land being brought under cultivation is not enough to offset the effects of the expanding labour force. The man-land ratio has, therefore, gone down from 1:2.4 in 1950 to 1: 2.2. in 1970. The acute problem of rural unemployment of the visible and disguised type is perennial. A substantial portion of the agricultural labour force is seemingly employed but is actually underutilized as it does not produce the equivalent of what it consumes. The quantum of internal savings is so small that it does not generate adequate investment. Thus the agriculture sector is caught in a vicious circle of inefficient input-mix, inadequate investment and poor income.

The industrial base of NWFP is limited and there are about 150 registered establishments in industrial pockets. They provide employment to nearly forty thousand persons. Most of the units are small or medium size. The average number of employees per establishment is 250. This area is passing through the initial phase of industrialization, and hence food and textile industries dominate the scene. Elementary consumer goods industries pervade. The capital products industry is conspicuous by its absence.

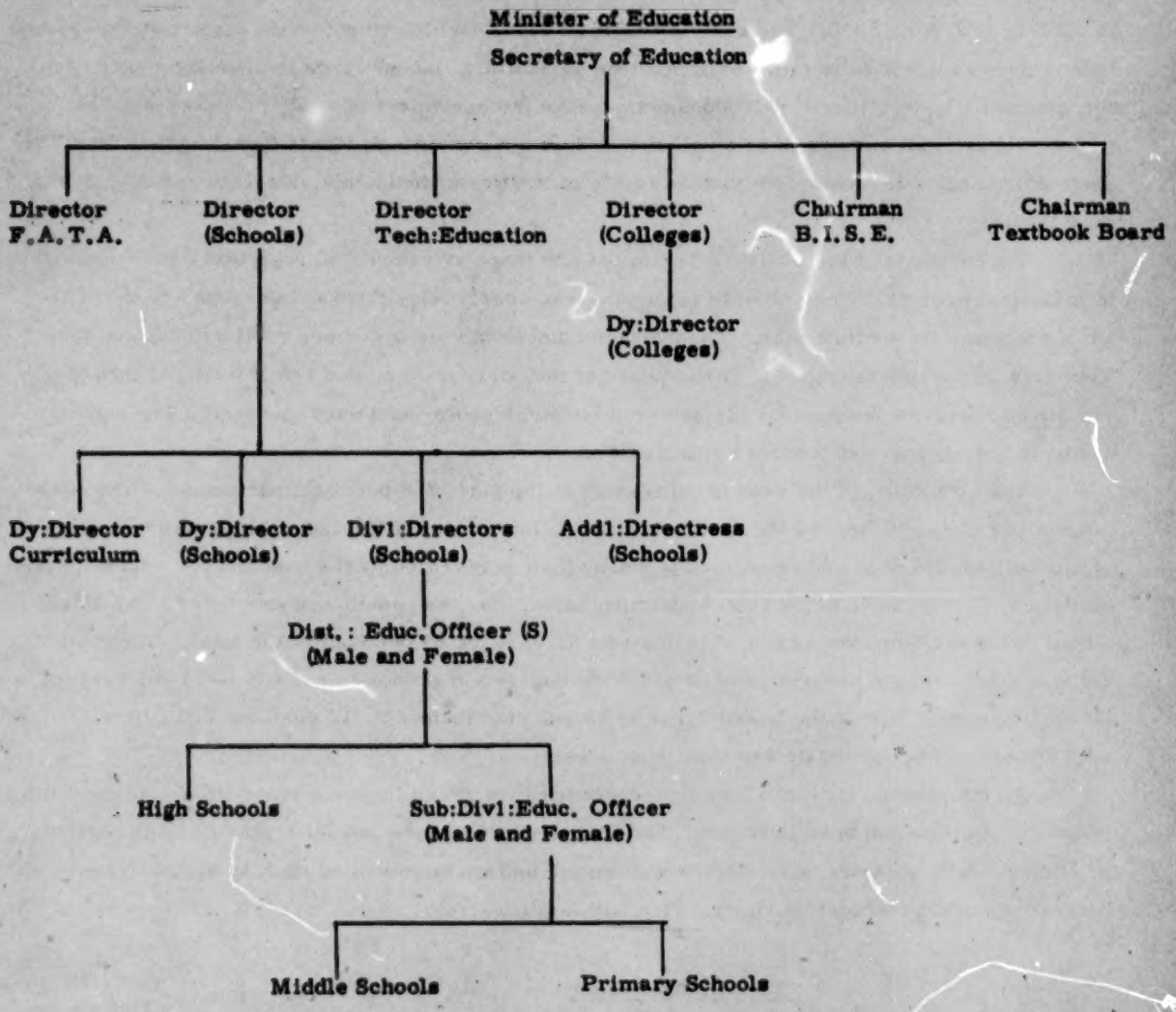
The population of the area is increasing at the rate of 3 per cent per annum. The annual income per capita is Rs. 560 which is below the national level of Rs. 720. Owing to great inequality of income, the lot of the common man is worse than is revealed by the average per capita income statistics. Thirty-three of the total population constitutes the possible labour force. The actual labour force is composed mainly of males who account for 89 per cent of the total. The male activity rate i. e. the percent number of males engaged in economic activity is 54 per cent. The level of education among the labour force is 78 per cent illiterate, 18 per cent just literate, 4 per cent graduate, post-graduate and their equivalents.

An integrated rural development programme (IRDP) to improve socio-economic conditions in the rural areas has been launched. The programme is conceived for a cluster of 80-100 villages, providing it with a centre, to co-ordinate economic and social services such as agricultural credit, marketing, health, education, family planning facilities, etc.

5. Educational set-up

Facilities for the acquisition of formal education are becoming available to more and more people. The number of educational institutions is increasing steadily. A much larger proportion of the population is at school/college at present than before. The rate of female participation in the education system is increasing. Every year that passes by makes the NWFP area richer in human capital. At the primary level the participation rate in the case of boys is 85 per cent while that in the case of girls is 21 per cent. The Education Department is as shown in the following organigramme.

Organigramme of the Education Department



At the primary stage the students awareness of the world around them, their knowledge of even the very basic facts of life and their ability in the 3 Rs leaves much to be desired. Instead of fostering knowledge, discipline, self-confidence, initiative, drive and the other attributes of a progressive individual, they are taught to digest education and to yield to authority. Barring a few expections, almost all the schools are staffed with poorly trained teachers as little talent is attracted to this level of teaching where prospects of promotion are non-existent.

At the secondary school stage the child enlarges upon his knowledge of the 3 Rs and learns a few more subjects. At this level students are prepared either for entrance to colleges for pursuing higher education or for undertaking junior-clerical and semi-skilled jobs.

CHAPTER II
MAIN PROBLEMS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

1. School building and maintenance

In the whole of NWFP there are 6,500 primary schools both for boys and girls. Out of these 5,000 are in the settled area while 1,500 belong to FATA. In the case of boys about 75 per cent of the schools buildings belong to the State while 20 per cent are rented and 5 per cent are housed in public buildings donated without rent or in buildings constructed on a self-help basis through the 'Public Works Programmes'. The State is responsible for maintaining State schools.

The number of schools is small and they have been located without reference to school mapping with the result that in places students have to travel for an hour and a half to reach a school. The situation is far worse in the case of girls. It raises the basic problem of easy access to schools and incidentally such a state of affairs increases the drop-out rate. To facilitate access to schools the community is induced to offer rent free accommodation for the purpose of establishing schools. However, the accommodation so made available is always deficient in many respects. During the early seventies it was observed that the short-fall in physical targets regarding construction of primary schools was worse. In the event of an emergency the first cut in expenditure used to be applied, invariably, to one or other programme of Primary Education.

Annual maintenance of State schools is worked out at the rate of 1.5 per cent of the original cost of the building of that school. In the case of old schools, and their number is by far the larger, the original cost is fairly small. With the sharp escalation of prices the amount so calculated for maintenance is hardly sufficient to carry out any real minor repair let alone speak of some major repairs. Private buildings rented or donated are not State buildings and therefore they remain neglected. Similarly buildings constructed on a self-help basis are not on the books of the Communications and Works Department and as such no funds out of State budgets can be allocated for their repair.

Probably the type of education imparted in these schools does not enjoy the confidence of the community with the result that people are very slow to realise the need to make their own contribution in the whole process, by way of allocating resources in amounts which are needed. Perhaps the community is too poor to make the necessary sacrifices.

2. Supply of furniture

Supply of furniture is supplied through the developmental budget at initial stages and is supplemented by provision of funds after three to five years. Due to resource constraints, the furniture at this level is limited to jute mats which are supplied by firms to the District Education Officer. Since primary schools are scattered, distribution to remote areas is not satisfactory. This deprives a number of schools of the workroom furniture.

3. Supply of male and female teachers

As soon as a school building has been arranged, appointments of teachers are made. Two years ago all new schools used to be single teacher schools. The practice has been stopped altogether as a matter of policy . In the case of a single teacher school, absence of the teacher, for one reason or another, means virtual closure of the school during the period of his absence. Now at least two teachers are appointed but there are many complaints that, in remote areas, they manage it in such a fashion that on one particular day only one teacher is present. However, there is no dearth of trained teachers of the requisite qualifications as large numbers were trained in the crash programmes during 1973-75. The situation is worse in the case of female teachers who cannot reside in communities other than ones belonging to their kith and kin. Since the vast majority of female teachers come from urban areas they do not proceed to their places of duty in the rural areas and get themselves transferred to schools situated in cities. In one investigation it was observed that 24 female teachers were working in a school located in a city having an enrolment of 220 girls while eight of the ten schools at a distance of 10-15 miles from that city were not functioning because the teachers had manouvred detailments from the rural schools to the city school. Since 1977 detailments have been cancelled and appointment of trained teachers in remote rural areas is becoming a serious problem.

4. In-service training of teachers

Teachers working in primary schools have to undergo a pre-service training of one year after they have been through a schooling of ten years. Thus the pre-service training judged by any criterion, is very inadequate. Perhaps the underlying dictum has been, until today, that anybody who knows can teach. It has not been appropriately realized that teaching/learning in the modern sense is an extremely complex process and one which demands sufficiently professional expertise to ensure successful execution. The only remedy lies in bringing teachers to the required level of adequacy in the various discipline areas and equipping them with the necessary pedagogical competencies through a series of in-service training courses.

It is widely recognized that education should be relevant to the needs, interests and conditions of the learner in particular and of the society which the educational system serves in general. In most developing countries attempts to attain this have been made through studies and revisions of the educational system, with a focus on the curriculum and the facilities in the schools. These attempts, however, failed to emphasize changes in education that may be effected by the teachers. The key to a relevant education system is not merely the improvement of the curriculum and facilities of schools. Neither is it the number and qualifications of teachers. Rather, it is all of

these plus the employment of quality teachers, i.e. those who can adapt themselves and the education system to demands for change. What is needed is highly qualified teachers who can initiate and implement innovation and be effective agents of change. With these teachers and the schools where they serve designated as nuclei, other schools can be attached to receive inspiration and guidance from them. Such clusters of schools can be made to pursue specific predetermined objectives with a view to evolving professional growth of all connected with the cluster. The idea of a central school equipped with better library, laboratory and reprographic facilities manned by quality teachers to serve as a forum for the initiation, dissemination and propagation of change is an idea worthy of honest trial.

Similarly in-service training of teachers can be programmed through use of self-instructional and self-pacing materials in the shape of module lessons and kits. Other long distance strategies making use of radio lessons, tape-cassettes, video-tapes or telecasts can be worked out. The added advantages of employing new technology to the solution of a felt need is that the process is rather cheap and that the clientele do not have to leave their duty stations.

5. Supply of school materials

Supply of textbooks to students and teachers and supply of materials needed for administrative as well as instruction are two auxiliary activities connected with the operation and maintenance of school plant. Textbooks prepared by the Textbook Board, NWFP are sold to local dealers who in turn sell them to the students. To keep the price low the paper used for printing of texts is never of a good quality. Similarly the books are never hard bound. Diagrams and illustrations are of inferior quality and the books appear to be dull and drab. The contents of the books usually carry factual mistakes and the style of presentation is usually not in keeping with the cognitive development of the relevant age-group.

Funds for the purchase of library books and other relevant school materials are provided through the annual non-developmental budget. The directorate apportions the amount for purchases to the District Education Officers. It requires not only continuing purchase of large stocks of materials and their systematic distribution, but also the provision of adequate storage space as well as an adequate accounting system and regular audits. Most of the materials needed for schools are purchased locally. For local purchases of consumable items the Headmasters of High Schools are given a limited imprest of money and the authority to purchase needed items. There is no comparable provision for heads of lower secondary and primary schools. They are, however, allowed to collect nominal monthly contributions from their pupils and they can operate the funds so collected after undergoing standard codal formalities.

The problems of distribution of supplies to remote areas are enormous and on many occasions they never reach their destinations. Similarly complaints regarding purchase of sub-standard articles at prices quoted against standardized items are quite rampant. Libraries attached to schools are much below the required standard and not a single educational journal goes round the schools. Usually one daily newspaper is supplied only to high schools, but even this facility is used only by the teacher and is not allowed to pupils. No primary/middle schools is provided with the

newspaper facility. This explains why reading, in general has failed to develop as a habit with the literate of the Pakistani nation so as to acquire information in the process of self-development.

6. Supply and production of visual-aids

As the method of instruction inside the schools is traditionally didactic, teachers are not aware of the rôle of visual aids in the mechanism of teaching/learning. At the primary level the standard methodological technique employed is that of drill. Instead of helping acquisition of learning the students are made to memorize every rôle. Students are examined and marks given on the basis of memory retention. Cognitive skills are over-emphasized at the expense of technical skills and character. The teachers still believe that the more information one has, the better are his/her chances of behaving in an intelligent way when confronted with a problematic situation. Teachers are still busy turning human beings into memory banks after the fashion of computers.

Teachers possess, little awareness of the laws of cognitive development of children or of the psychological mechanisms attached to the process of learning. They, as a class, do not yet believe in moving from concrete to abstract in the assimilation of concepts. They are not yet clearly conscious of the laws of transfer of knowledge and are fairly ignorant of the latest trends in teaching/learning, knowing of next to nothing of the self-programmed instructional techniques based on the self pacing of a student. Teachers still believe that they are to dispense knowledge and the process is rather similar to transferring some liquid from one pan to another empty pot. They do not yet understand the desirability of two-way communication nor of the shift of their rôle in the process, associated with the intellectual growth of their wards. Nobody has yet identified the basic competencies desired for our children.

In a pedagogical milieu dominated by archaic trends, obsolete concepts of teaching/learning and counter-productive methodologies of instruction, use is made of very excessive one-way verbal interaction. All that the child receives are words in the shape of sound waves. It is little wonder that it fails to affect organization of thought as this is not the intended goal. The whole exercise of instruction is carried out without employing any visual aid, either sophisticated or contrived out of the cheap local materials commonly available. The situation calls for drastic retraining of teachers. Here is an area where the medium of television can ideally be made use of.

7. Rôle of inspection

Inspection of schools, and especially of the schools situated in remote rural areas, is carried out very rarely. Paper workd connected with personnel matters consumes so much of the time of Inspectors that hardly enough is left to arrange a tour programme for inspection. Inspection, when undertaken, is carried out in traditional style. The Inspector leaves no doubt as to the authority that he commands. An inspection is still considered to be an occasion to exhibit dictatorial attitudes, excessive use of rank and pompous authority. Resort is so often made to destructive criticism and teachers are criticized right in front of the children. Multiple standards are exhibited and there are too many complains of favouritism to individual teachers. Inspections

appear to perform no useful constructive function except to determine the extent to which rules, regulations etc., issued from time to time, have been followed. It is still conceived as a mechanism of regulation through the enforcement of controls. The trouble with the Inspectors is that they have not been properly trained for the job. Then there are difficultuies due to the lack of transport facilities. The Inspectors have no means of mobility of their own and this hampers their will to move out into the field and to observe what is actually happening inside the classrooms.

Headmasters are busy with the many demands of their school and are very poorly equipped anyway to carry out the work associated with their functions and in particular supervision within their institutions. Teachers rarely bring their instructional problems to the notice of the Headmaster and seek his guidance lest they be classed as incompetent. Similarly headmasters seldom feel the urge to pass on tricks of the trade to their staff. Thus the professional exchange of experience never takes place and self-development on the part of teachers is at its lowest ebb.

8. Rôle of the school

The rôle of the school within a community is determined by the type of teacher made available to the school. Until and unless teachers are properly prepared, through pre-service training and in-service refresher courses, to identify desirable changes and to evolve means to cope with them they cannot be expected to play their rôle as agents of change. Teachers as a class never exhibit any sensitivity to the issues of social growth within their communities, with the result that they fail to generate participation of local people in programmes initiated by the government with a view to improving the lot of the common man.

The institution of the rural school has never been conceived as a mechanism to foster and sustain the process of rural development. In fact, the schools as they exist today are tied to the tradition bound education system catering primarily to urban cultural values and systems. In the context of development, the school existing in the rural area of NWFP, or for that matter the whole of Pakistan had never offered much and has never realized the possible extent of its contribution. The school behaves as a separate entity isolated from the main-stream of life. It has, indeed, little bearing on practical day-to-day life.

9. Administrative services

An administrator of the education department has three sub-domains to attend to and they pertain to: (i) maintenance and upkeep of the existing supply services, (ii) resolution of issues involving professional expertise and (iii) implementation of projects necessitated as a result of planning and development.

Almost 80-90 per cent of the administrator's time is taken up by matters associated with maintenance and supply. Trivial matters like recruitment, trasfer, promotion, distribution of salaries, requesting quotations, issuing supply orders, attending to interviews and the rest consume nearly all available energies. There is no mechanism as such to ascertain the needs of each school nor are the teachers there empowered to attend to these needs if they relate to procurements. The teachers do bring needs to the notice of the administrator verbally as and when possible but they are more often unheard than looked into.

Most of the time there are no local bodies and thus the need to seek their co-operation does not arise. Very rarely when such local bodies are operative do they work as independent institutions. Similarly except for moments of acute emergency such as when the country is in a state of war or is afflicted with some natural calamity, no co-operation is sought from pupils or their parents.

The liaison between a district administration office and the Provincial Ministry of Education is fairly close as compared to the one maintained with the Federal Ministry of Education which is almost next to nothing. The flow of communication is undirectional i. e. from the top to the bottom and as such no systematic feed-back or follow-up exists. Similarly good administrators do not remain for adequate periods at local posts to help continuity and improve the situation.

CHAPTER III
CONCLUSIONS

1. Communications

Communications as they exist at present are extremely inadequate and need to be looked at in order to improve horizontal as well as vertical, formal as well as informal flows. Communications can be improved by narrowing the gap that exists between the administrative offices at the district level and the schools at the village level. Attempts have been made to achieve this by shifting the administrative offices down to the sub-district level so as to see that they are as close to the grass-roots level as possible. Through the process of decentralization these offices can delegate enough powers to ensure that decisions are made at near the point of action and as quickly as feasible.

2. Participation by local people

Participation by local people in the affairs of education in general and in what goes on inside schools in particular has been minimal, the reason being the inability on the part of the school to realize its catalytic rôle in generating interests and activities in community work. There is urgent need to understand that essentially education is a social process and the school is an important social organization. It has twin functions of implementing innovations in all areas of national development and of serving as a vehicle for future change. Participation by local people can be ensured if elementary schools start exercising leadership through tailoring the curriculum to better suit social reconstruction programmes. Teachers can retain their lost prestige through influencing the course of events and taking advantage of the strategic position which the community provides to them.

3. Technical advice

Schools buildings have been constructed so far with structural requirements and climatic conditions in mind. They have never been designed with the functions of the schools in view. Recently some experiments have been made and it transpires that the design of the building can also contribute to rendering teaching/learning more effective. The knowledge so gained needs be transmitted so as to help design better school buildings. Similarly our views about furniture making have undergone much change.

Previously furniture was made conceiving the class as just one standard setting. Our latest awareness is that the setting of the class needs to conform to the type of activity to be indulged in by the students and that it ought to be changed accordingly. Clearly this fact calls for furniture which is sturdy but light and easily portable.

4. In-service training

It is generally felt that dynamic methods are needed to prepare teachers for their new rôle in linking education to the problems of national development. Methods of teaching involving group processes seem to be the appropriate ones in this context. Such a methodology ensures strong interaction among members of the group. Seminars, buzz sessions, panel discussions, debates, brain storming and simulation are the means to ensure new approaches to human behaviour.

In recognition of the fact that it is only a self-reliant reacher who can imbue the people with a spirit of self-reliance, than some self-learning method for training of teachers should be designed. The modular approach readily suggests itself as the solution. It is a potent means as it emphasizes the learner's participation to the maximum and the teacher's interference to the minimum

5. Inspection/supervision

The authoritarian rôle of the traditional Inspector of Schools is not compatible with the redefined aims of education. There is an urgent need for professionalizaing educational administration by providing specialized training for people involved in this work, so that they can help teachers perform their functions efficiently and effectively. The move towards more enlightened methods of supervison, with emphasis on professional leadership, guidance, communication and human relations, is essential for the development of education in the NWFP. Teacher morale and confidence, as well as competence, must be built up from within the profession. Those who are untrained or inexperienced must be helped and guided towards making a worthwhile contribution. Those who are competent in terms of the present must be encouraged to release their full potential so as to bring about desired changes.

6. Supply of educational materials

To ensure that textbooks reach students their production ought to remain with the NWFP Textbook Board. The sale of books ought to be taken away from the private sector and its distribution should be entrusted to a supply wing of the Textbook Board. The books can be made available directly to schools according to their orders and they can then arrange their sale. The Textbook Board can be allowed to establish its system of depots and sub-depots to reach to the farthest corner.

Educational materials including furniture can be standardized. Bulk production and assembly in the form of kits can be entrusted to a Materials Production Centre. The sale and distribution of these kits can be arranged through the depots and sub-depots established in connection with textbooks. Standardized specifications of furniture can be given to the local people for the purpose of manufacturing, etc.

Enough competency ought to be imparted to the teacher so that he can design and from the raw materials available to him, prepare himself the audio-visual aids of which he proposes to make use. This procedure will ensure that the learning aids are really cheap and will increase their chances of actually being employed in a classroom situation. Similarly teachers need to be taught the skill of manufacturing a hectograph to enable them to reproduce about 80 to 100 copies of handouts that they might like to distribute to the class or to enable them to prepare multiple copies of evaluation instruments with a view to giving some tests to the whole class.

7. District office

In order to improve the work of a District Office the first imperative is to have the Job Description of each official prepared so that every one specifically knows his responsibilities in no uncertain terms. The second thing is to ensure through a cycle of training and retraining that each official possesses the competencies required for the discharge of his responsibilities and is sure of the procedures which he is required to follow. Operational manuals can be codified and made available to all for ready references. During the training courses arranged to impart the required competencies to the officials of the education department, suggestions can be invited and consolidated in order to:

- Streamline the mechanics of administration: filing systems, effecting liaison and co-ordination, maintaining accounts etc. etc.
- Redefine work responsibilities and decision responsibilities in the administrative/clerical levels; and
- Remove trivial clerical tasks by effective delegation of both responsibilities and authority for decision making.

There is an urgent need to disseminate the view that educational administration is a service industry which has no existence in its own right. It exists simply to ensure the maximum growth of every child entrusted to its care.

8. National/provincial ministry

The röle of the National Ministry of Education is at present basically that of problem identifier and planner. The Provincial Ministry of Education has to organise, co-ordinate and manage in the light of directives issued from the National Ministry. In between the Provincial Ministry and the local people there are four tiers of intervening offices. All directives and plans either get diluted or distorted during transmission from one tier to the rest. Planning is undertaken without knowledge of actual field conditions and the field workers are usually ignorant of the content of the plan. Thus those who have to translate a plan into action have little knowledge of the total plan. The situation is further compounded by the fact that usually the field staff lacks both the skill and ability to perform the task entrusted to it.

9. Recent measures adopted

Reorganization

Having realized the critical rôle of management in the process of education and having concluded that it was inadequate to respond to new emerging tasks, it was thought advisable to submit the existing educational organization to critical re-examination. Such an activity was urgently desired in view of the quantitative expansion which has taken place over the last two decades. An immediate effect of such a vast expansion has been the lengthening of the lines of communication weakening the feedback from field operations to the central agency. This led to the taking of decisions in the abstract, removed from actual field conditions. The problem posed by growth in size has been further compounded by an equal growth in complexity resulting from the new concept of education designed for socio-economic transformation. Such a state of affairs created problems of duplication and overlapping of functions leading to confused lines of responsibility and accountability. Thus both quantitative as well as qualitative factors contributed towards recognising the need for reorganizing the whole educational set-up in such a way as to make it more consistent with its new rôles and functions.

10. Administrative reforms in education

The growth in size and complexity of the educational system has compelled administration to resort to decentralization. This has been further reinforced by the need to relate educational institutions and their administration more closely to the communties which they are designed to serve. As a result it was thought appropriate to shift the lowest administrative unit in the hierarchy from the district level. Simultaneously the financial as well as administrative powers were delegated downwards with a view to ensuring speedy resolution of problems as well as making it possible to take decisions near the point of action.

11. Management project

Realizing the immensity as well as the complexity of the task associated with reorganization/ decentralization of the Education Department, it was felt that nothing short of a total approach to the problems of structure and procedures of administration would be called for. Decades of patching-up, tacking on bits and pieces, tinkering with the structure, have created so many anomalies that adjusting one part here or there will create strains in other parts. Thus it was thought expedient to create a special unit, or cell, with responsibility for carrying out study and research work with the specific objective of producing positive recommendations for revision of the structure and improvement of procedures. The same cell can then be entrusted with the task of designing new job descriptions, preparation of an operational manual to support implementation of recommendations and carrying out a series of orientation programmes to effect retraining administrators in the education system. UNDP has agreed to provide the technical assistance required under the project.

12. In-service teachers training project

UNDP has agreed partly to fund a project of the NWFP which was conceived to improve the existing in-service teachers training programme. Refresher courses in connection with the in-service training courses of teachers have been designed, so far, with the purpose to update their cognition in certain content areas. The necessary pedagogical skills required in connection with the transmission of cognitive skills have never been imparted to them. The net result of the activities connected with in-service training programmes has been that teachers teach the new curricula employing old instructional methods. The situation needs urgent rectification and as a first step the teachers' educators need to be taught the necessary competencies. A project stretching over four years with a view to rendering the process of in-service teachers' training more adequate has been formulated and will start with effect from September 1979.

13. World Bank project

One of the endemic problems in connection with primary education is the problem of wastages in the form of drop-outs. The rate is nearly 50 per cent and is mostly restricted to transition from grade 1 to 2. It adversely effects the disadvantaged population and critically reduces the chances of their development, which are already very meagre in view of their low participation rate. To help improve the retention rate of the disadvantaged population, it has been thought appropriate to provide on a limited scale in just four Tehsils all the in-school factors, such as adequate equipment, books furniture and adequately trained teachers as well as supervisors. so as to enhance the retention rate. By providing additional space in those schools, it is hoped to increase the chances of access of children of the rural population. The rationalized in-service teachers training programmes described in above paragraph are further supposed to augment the whole effort. Provision has been made to conduct operational research to ensure the success of the project.

14. School mapping

Selection of sites for the opening of new primary schools was basically a political decision for the last two decades or so. The situation that has resulted as a consequence of the lack of any valid criterion for establishment of new primary schools is fairly uneven. At places, two primary schools may be sharing the same compound while at other places the nearest school may be 5 kilometers away with no connecting road in between. Thus under the circumstances, it was thought proper to conduct a school mapping service of the entire area with a view to determine better utilization of available resources. UNICEF has agreed to fund the scheme and to provide any technical assistance required during the undertaking. The exercise is expected to be completed within a year and it is hoped that new schools will be established with due consideration for their optimum utilization.

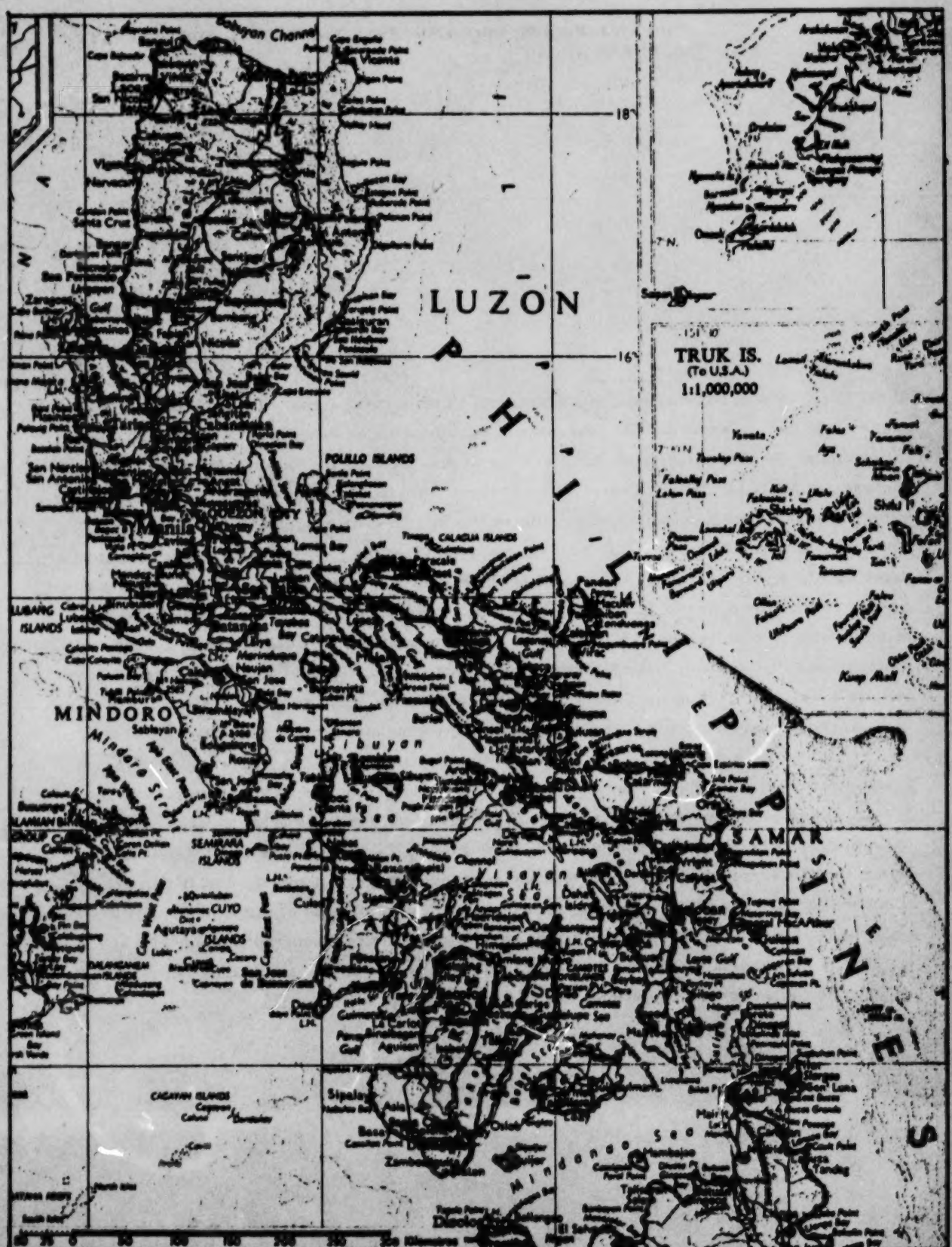
THE PHILIPPINES: PROBLEMS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN RURAL AREAS

by Priscilla S. Manalang

Introduction

About 75 per cent of some 46 million Filipinos still live in rural areas. The difficulty in such an assertion is that the rural and the urban cannot be differentiated completely in Philippine reality. It is true that the outermost small islands of the archipelago and the hinterlands in the north and south might safely be classified as remote and rural. Yet one has only to drive sixty or seventy kilometers from such an urban center as Metro Manila to see what is obviously rural existence: small farms, agrarian pursuits like fishing, make-shift houses, rough roads and the ubiquituous water buffalo or carabao. This is the case in Rizal Province southeast of Manila, once described as the wealthiest province in the country before its twelve richest towns were absorbed by Metro Manila. This is equally true of Marawi City, a misleading title, because its outer fringes are thinly populated and it lies beside Lake Mæranao, the waters yielding fish and the rich soil growing rice to feed the people. In such regions there are small schools which are remote, not necessarily because of distance, but deriving from rough terrain, lack of communication and specific cultural factors.

Since it is with such schools that the writer is more familiar, the problems of educational administration as perceived in these schools will be discussed in this paper. The assumption here is that if these problems exist in schools which are relatively close to urban centres, they would be found in greater degree in the schools of the hinterlands. Even when the statistics proclaim that the labour force is largely engaged in service and semi-skilled occupations, the fact is that peasant communities have a multi-occupational structure, one essential facet of which is farming and related agrarian pursuits. This was found to be the case in an intensive ethnographic study of a school and community in Rizal. This finding implied that farming per se did not yield sufficient returns for survival, let alone for the other amenities of life (Manalang, 1977).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Sulu Sea
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131

CHAPTER I
TWO SCHOOLS IN RIZAL PROVINCE

Rizal province, once the wealthiest provincial area in the country, is situated in the southwestern portion of Luzon and is bounded by Quezon Province on the east, Metro Manila on the west, Bulacan on the north, Laguna de Bay on the southeast and Cavite on the southwest. It stretches about 45 kilometers east to west and 80 kilometers north to south.

Gently rolling hills and a few rugged ridges which comprise the southern foothills of the Sierra Madre Mountain range compose the eastern part, while the western part is mostly flat, sloping gradually to sea level, terminating at Manila Bay before 12 of its towns were geographically redefined as part of Metro Manila. At the foot of the western elevations are valleys, the largest of which is the Marikina valley.

Except for the area covered by the Sierra Madre Mountains which has an even distribution of rainfall throughout the year, Rizal has two pronounced seasons. It is generally dry from November to April and wet during the rest of the year. The average annual rainfall is 23 millimeters with a peak of 35[illegible] millimeters in August and a low of 50 millimeters in March. The heaviest rainfall occurs in July, August and September when 70 per cent of the yearly rainfall occurs. The hottest months are April, May and June, while the coolest are December, January and February. The highest monthly average temperature is reported at 85°F in May and the lowest at 78°F in January.

Part of the southeastern boundary is the Laguna de Bay lake, the largest in the Phillippines. Scattered around the shores of the lake are some of the oldest towns in the country, which carried on trade with the Chinese long before the Spanish conquerors came to the Philippines. This is explained by the presence of the Pasig River, the chief commercial route in the country during those early times when Chinese trading junks plied between Maynilad (ancient name of Manila) and the towns around the lake.

Population

(a) Total population: As of the 1975 integrated census, Rizal had a population of 165,632 males and 172,271 females, or a total of 337,903. Table 1 shows the age composition of the population.

Table 1. Age composition of the population (1975)

Age composition	Number	Percent
0 - 14 years	129 409	38.3
15 - 64 years	201 465	59.6
65 years and over	7 030	2.1
Total	337 903	100.0

(b) Migration: Out of 291, 023 persons belonging to the 5 year-old and over population, 76.5 per cent live in the same barrios in which they resided in 1970. Those who were residing in other barrios of the same municipality account for 6.1 per cent ; in other municipalities of the same province, 7.0 per cent; and from other provinces, 8.9 per cent. About 0.2 percent were out of the country, while 1.3 per cent did not report their place of residence in 1970.

(c) Dialect : Tagalog, the major dialect of the province, is the mother tongue of 70.9 per cent of the total population. Ilocano is spoken by 5.8 per cent; Bicol 5.5 per cent; Samar-Leyte or waray-waray and Cebuano, 3.5 per cent each; Hiligaynon or Ilongo, 3.0 per cent; Pangasinan, 2.2 per cent; and Pampango, 2.1 per cent. All the other Philippine dialects are distributed over the remaining 3.5 per cent.

Economically active population

(a) Classes of workers: Out of 245, 041 persons aged 10 years and over, 45.4 per cent are engaged in gainful occupations and 50.0 per cent in non-gainful occupations. New entrants to the labour force comprise 4.6 per cent.

Of those engaged in non-gainful occupations, 34.8 per cent are housekeepers, 52.3 per cent are students and 12.9 per cent "others".

Of the 111, 354 gainful workers, 81.8 per cent are wage and salary earners, 16.0 per cent are engaged in their own businesses and 1.3 per cent are unpaid family workers. Those who did not specify their class of worker category represent 0.9 per cent.

Of the wage and salary earners, 84.2 per cent are private employees and 15.8 per cent are government employees. Of those engaged in private businesses 84.0 are self-employed, and 16.0 per cent are employees.

(b) Industries: Services, the leading industry of the province, employs 37.7 per cent of the gainful workers Those engaged in transport, communication and storage - 8.0 per cent; construction, 6.6 per cent; agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing 4.6 per cent; and mining and quarrying 0.4 per cent. Manufacturing employs 26.4 per cent and commerce 14.3 per cent. Those engaged in electricity, gas, water and sanitary services comprise 0.8 per cent and industries not adequately described 1.2 per cent.

(c) Occupations: The following Table 2 reflects the number of workers engaged in gainful occupations:

Table 2. Number of workers engaged in gainful occupations

Major gainful occupation group	Number	Percentage
1. Craftsman, production, process workers and related labourers	30 377	27.3
2. Service, sports and related workers	22 303	20.0
3. Clerical workers	13 851	12.4
4. Shop workers	12 422	11.2
5. Professionals, technical and related workers	10 112	9.1
6. Workers in transport and communications	9 194	8.2
7. Farmers, fishermen, hunters, loggers and related workers	5 120	4.6
8. Administrative, executive and managerial workers	3 695	3.3
9. Stevedores, related freight handlers and labourers	1 767	1.6
10. Miners, quarrymen and related workers	334	0.3
11. Others and occupations unidentifiable	2 177	2.0
Total	111 354	100.0

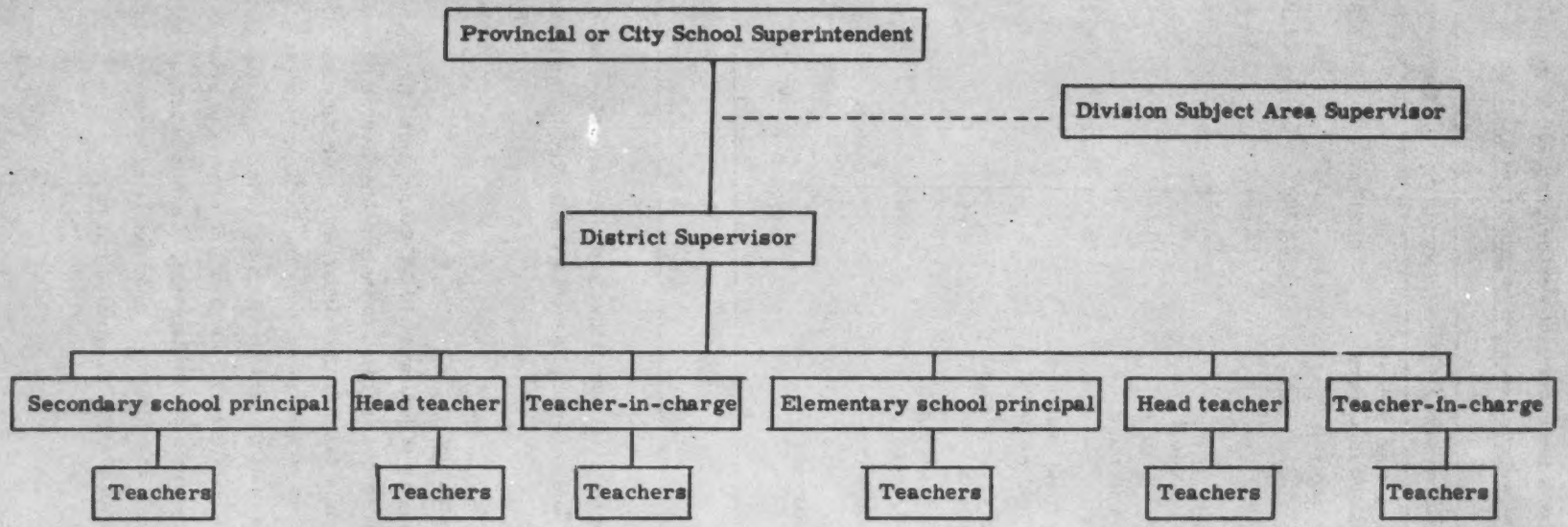
It should be noted that only about one third of the total population is employed. Moreover, the listing of occupations ignores seasonal employment and underemployment as reflected in the multi-occupational structure of barrio economies.

Educational administration

Prior to the recent reorganization of the Ministry of Education and Culture, this office exercised both line and staff functions vis-à-vis the field personnel assigned to their respective stations all over the islands. This highly centralized system became excessively bureacratic over time and was resolved by the division of the country into regions, each of which would have a director representing each Ministry in the cabinet. In this manner it was felt that the problems of communication, transport and decision-making could be handled more expeditiously. Each region consits of several provinces and share certain characteristics such as conditions of development, a common language, a basically agrarian economy, etc. For the administration of education a province is called a division.

The administrative organization at this level is illustrated in Chart 1.

Organization of School Division



135

136

The Division of Rizal is at present headed by a Provincial Schools Superintendent with an Assistant Provincial Schools Superintendent to assist him.

The promotional staff is composed of twelve (12) division subject area supervisors to assist the superintendent and assistant superintendent. Also helping the Superintendent in the administration and supervision of the schools in Rizal are 3 Secondary School Principals, 12 District Supervisors, 59 Elementary Principals, 18 Head Teachers and 10 Teachers-in-Charge. The elementary school officials take charge of the 93 complete elementary schools, 21 complete primary schools and 11 incomplete primary schools, a total of 125 schools.

The total enrolment for elementary schools as of June, 1977 is 74,473 with 53,007 in the primary and 21,466 in the intermediate grades. The total enrolment at secondary level is 7,242 of which 3,844 are boys and 3,580 are girls.

The 53,007 primary pupils are organized into 1,403 primary classes with a ratio of 1:41. The 21,466 intermediate pupils are organized into 363 intermediate pupils with a ratio of 1:21.

Six districts have organized pre-school classes with a total enrolment of 588 pupils, 300 of whom are boys and 288 are girls. These classes are funded from voluntary contributions of the parents and community people.

The division has a total of 2,295 elementary school teachers, 289 of whom are males, and 2,006 females. There are 200 secondary school teachers, 42 of whom are males and 158 females.

Figure 1 shows the conventional educational ladder in the Philippine system.

Figure 1. Educational ladder

Age			
20	Senior	4-year college/university course	
19	Junior		
18	Sophomore		
17	Freshman		
16	Fourth Year	High school or Secondary	
15	Third Year		
14	Second Year		
13	First Year		
12	Grade 6	Intermediate	Elementary
11	Grade 5		
10	Grade 4		
9	Grade 3	Primary	
8	Grade 2		
7	Grade 1		

For the purposes of bringing administration closer to the schools in the community, the division has been further divided into districts, one district usually comprising one or more towns or municipalities. A town has a centre, but it also encompasses barrios, some of which are located in more distant, if not inaccessible, places. A barrio school may be headed by a principal or head teacher, the designation depending on the number of teachers who work under the school administrator. For example, in 1969-70, Ligtal Elementary School was manned by 14 teachers and administered by a head teacher.

Ligtal and Paalaman are elementary schools belonging to the school district of Pililla-Jalajala. There is one district supervisor for some sixteen elementary schools and a few newly established barangay (barrio) high schools.

Ligtal is a lowland barrio, part of a town on the edge of the lake. Paalaman is an upland village, which is part of Jalajala, the town on the peninsular tip of Rizal which juts out into the eastern side of the lake.

Ligtal and its school were studied intensively about ten years ago to determine the meaning of the school to its constituents and the school in Paalaman was visited several times this year to ascertain the quality of its educational services.

Despite their proximity to Metro Manila, some schools like Paalaman are characterized by a scarcity of the necessary facilities for effective formal education. While lowland schools manage to keep up with educational developments in the city to some degree, schools like Paalaman are barely able to continue operations from day to day. Rough terrain, bureaucratic procedures, inadequate supervisory personnel, and scarce resources as well as cultural factors account for this lag.

For educational and administrative purposes Rizal is included in Region IV-A.

> "These regions rate high in the availability of educational services. The major educational problems in these regions, however, are the low survival rates reflected in high proportions of out-of-school youth, and the increasing pressure to expand the provision of secondary and higher level education before employment opportunities are sufficiently provided for". (NEDA, 1977)

Paalaman 1979

Paalaman has a two-teacher, four-grade primary school. It serves an upland community located on rolling, mountainous terrain lying halfway between the lakeshore towns of Jalajala and Bagumbong. The community is about five kilometers from Jalajala, but it takes a healthy adult more than an hour to reach it from the town. The barrio is a cluster of houses, which are scattered all over the hills, and it is in a state of semi-wilderness, thick with trees, bushes and rocks. There is neither electricity nor a sewerage system nor water, which is obtained from streams and wells. The households, about one hundred of them, subsist on upland farming, growing coffee, calamansi (a kind of citrus fruit), bananas and other fruits and crops like yam, garlic, ginger and onions on plots that have been cleared. These seasonal crops are sold after harvest, but good harvests depend on the weather. The typhoons that visit the region periodically can ruin the crops planted in May. When that happens the villagers must tighten their belts, live on meager savings or on

credit. The crops are taken to the lowlands by horses, although only a few families own such draft animals.

In the absence of sewerage, pit toilets are used and kerosene lamps light up the dark nights.

The only way to reach the place from the town is by foot, through a narrow trail traversing the hills. The path uphill is steep, winding and the clay soil makes the unaccustomed traveller prone to slip or even fall. The woman teacher who lives in another coastal town some 3 kilometers away wears boots to negotiate the trail on Mondays, staying in the barrio through Friday.

The other male tacher, who teaches the third and fourth graders also lives elsewhere. Administratively, these two are under the principal of the central school in the town, to whom they report on Monday mornings and Friday afternoons.

An improvised school building stands in the heart of the community, on a semi-level open area. It is about the size of a garage fit to accommodate one car, its walls made of dried coconut tree leaves and its roof of galvanized iron sheets. It was constructed by the villagers themselves, out of a desire to have their children acquire some schooling. They reasoned that the foot trail was too hazardous for younger children, aged 7 to 10 years, who were consequently unable to attend classes in the central school in town. Older children in the higher grades wake up very early and go in groups to the Central school, taking food with them, to return home late in the afternoon. Parenthetically, this structure serves as a chapel on Sundays. The schoolhouse has been divided into two rooms, two blackboards separating them in the middle. The earthen floor turns muddy during the rainy season. On our visit we counted exactly eleven desks for thirty pupils. Other than these and the blackboards, the rooms were bare. At the back of the building there is a pit covered by empty sacks tied to small tree trunks at the corners which serves as a toilet. Sometimes, there is a clay jar which the children fill with water, but this happens only when someone brings a jar to the school.

Mrs. A teaches Grade one and two pupils. She has about twenty of them, while Mr. B handles the ten third and fourth graders. At the beginning of the school year there were fifty pupils.

Other than their reports to the principal in town on Monday mornings and Friday afternoons, these two teachers are entirely on their own. Messages to the school are usually handcarried by pupils who go to the Central school. No supervisor has ever come to visit teachers. However, it must be mentioned that in the entire school district of Pililla-Jalajala there is only one district supervisor for some sixteen elementary schools. Nor are Paalaman teachers offered opportunities to attend in-service training programmes. Paalaman is clearly a hardship post, but the only incentives for teachers is the free board and lodging offered them by the villagers during the school week.

Not surprisingly, the teachers are often late on Monday mornings. On the Monday we visited, the pupils were still waiting for their teacher upon our arrival at 10 a. m. Mrs A gave them counting and addition lessons, using the pupils themselves, the posts, blackboards and desks as instructional materials.

The desks and blackboards as well as the few books, are likely to be old ones sent from the central school and are returned at the end of the school year. Only three boxes of chalk are allotted to the two teachers for the whole term. Visual aids and other requisite materials are made or purchased by the teachers out of personal funds.

In spite of the statistics showing a current surplus of teachers, it is difficult to recruit teachers for Paalaman, and equally difficult to retain them.

When the school started about eight years ago by holding classes under the houses, the first female teacher stayed for seven years. She was joined by Mr. V who taught the third graders, but he left within a year. Another man replaced him, staying for five years, after which Mr. B came. When the woman teacher left last year, Mrs. A was assigned to Paalaman. All teachers in Paalaman apply regularly for a change of assignment. The only reason they stay is the need for a job and the lack of vacancies in other schools of the district.

The most encouraging aspect of Paalaman is the initiative of the community in setting up a structure, however improvised, for their children's schooling. They have requested that a road to and from the school be built, but in view of its remoteness and its negligible importance in the overall scheme of "development", this is not likely to happen in the immediate future.

Ligtal: 1969-1971

Although Ligtal was primarily a fishing-farming village on the lakeshore several years ago, it had a multi-occupational structure. Men farmed, fished, did carpentry, raised ducks and took odd jobs for subsistence. Women kept stores, sold fish, laundered clothes for a fee and participated in planting and harvesting. Even children contributed to the economy by selling fish or looking after the household and younger siblings when their parents were in the fields.

The population of 2,145 lived in some 320 households located on fifteen hectares of residential land donated by a local philenthropist when the gradfathers of the villagers left Jalajala in the late twenties. The exodus was caused by oppression arising from landlord-tenant relationships, because Jalajala was the only town in Rizal province with a vast hacienda.

During the period of the study, Ligtal had one head teacher and fourteen teachers, only two of whom were men.

The number of those gainfully employed or otherwise earning some income was 626 men and women; those in the age range 16 to 65 years, the conventional age limits for adult work, comprised 542 men and 662 women or a total of 1,204 able-bodied people. This meant that about half of the labour force were unemployed and that a small proportion of the population supported the rest This supports the NEDA claim that one major problem of Rizal is its out-of-school youth and adults.

Yet there seemed to be some hope of development for Ligtal was the site chosen for an electric power station and an oil refinery by Meralco, a power generating corporation. When construction started the number of stores increased and new small restaurants were opened. At the same time drinking local liquor or beer and gambling also increased, even as prices of food and other necessities rose to levels which the villagers could hardly afford.

Shortly after the settlement of the barrio, the main school building, made primarily of wood, was constructed. Later two prefabricated structures were added on one side, and on the other, a small Home Economics building and a lunch counter giving the school complex a U-shaped design. The school buildings, consisting of about five structures and one toilet which could not be used regularly for lack of water, were cleaned and maintained by the pupils under the direction of the teachers, since the lone janitor did other chores such as taking messages to and from the central district office The water shortage also precluded regular cooking lessons, although the Home Economics facility was otherwise properly equipped with gas stove, sink and appropriate furniture, all of which contrasted with the wood fuelled clay stoves and bare furnishings of most houses in the barrio.

Books sent from the district office at the beginning of the school year were inadequate. A social studies class of 35 children used seven workbooks. Teachers lacked taching guides and bought their own visual aids. They performed various rôles as fund-raisers, clerks, typists, custodians, disciplinarians, supervisors of building maintenance, hospitality organisers for official visitors and community development workers, in addition to teaching. Of the fifteen teachers, including the head teacher, four lacked the necessary academic qualifications and eight had no civil service eligibility.

During the year when the school was observed no doctor came to check on the pupils, although there was a dentist who visited the school once. The district supervisor came three times, on each occasion administering tests to groups of pupils for evaluative purposes. During the same period, the supervisor was replaced by someone else as was the head teacher. At least four teachers sought transfers to schools closer to their own homes, from which they rode on tricycles or jeepneys every workday to report to the school.

Instruction was mechanistic and didactic. For example, in one science class, the pupils and teachers talked about hypotheses and other aspects of the scientific method, there being no available equipment for demonstration or experiment. Virtually all head teachers and supervisors interviewed were competent teachers who had been promoted to administrative positions.

The Meaning of the School[1]

The study sought to determine the meanings attached to the school by the teachers and school administrators, the community and the pupils. The following data have been abstracted from the wealth of detail derived from the ethnographic approach and summarized:

Although it was established later than the village, the school possessed a history that was part of the settlement of the barrio. Two generations of villagers had attended the school. During this period the people, including the leaders, teachers and school heads, had developed certain

1. This section is taken from a report prepared by Miss Manalung in 1977.

certain expectations relative to the school: it transmitted traditional values and taught basic literacy skills. These functions had become institutionalized. Obedience, age-respect, submission to authority, a proper sense of indebtedness for favours received, getting along well with others were the values most frequently mentioned by parents and teachers. In addition, reading, writing and computational skills were mentioned as the proper domain of the school.

These basic skills were no more than the minimum requirement for entry into an increasingly complex national economy that had no room for those with less than a high-school education. The village economy offered a subsistence level of living to the majority of villagers. Not surprisingly, transfer to a city job with a regular, fixed salary represented a desirable, if frequently unattained, ideal.

That the school went no further than the teaching of traditional values and basic literacy skills was perceived by parents, leaders, teachers and school heads alike as a limited instrument for advancement, competing on uneven terms for the child's time and energy with the socio-economic system of the community. If a child was needed to help at home when parents were at work on the farm, he dropped out of school without creating any crisis. Survival was simply more important than education.

This economic definition reinforced the conception of the school as primarily an institution that supplies the necessary credentials for the next higher level of formal education. Its certificate was essential, but gave little prestige. If the child was unable to complete the elementary course, at least he had had a minimum of schooling, which was thought of as less shameful than having none at all.

Despite the high rate of pupil dropouts, children who reverted to illiteracy did not loose the ability to count and compute, because even the simple village economy required these skills. On the other hand, the paucity of reading materials in barrio homes and the increasing reliance on the transistor radio for news and entertainment reinforced this reversion to illiteracy.

The rhetoric of official objectives notwithstanding, traditional values and basic literacy skills persisted as the institutionalized purposes of the school. Whenever there was an attempt to depart from them, it was not without criticism and/or resistance. Thus, most parents saw little value in gardening, selling and other domestic chores required of the pupils. Nor was there much enthusiasm engendered for Boy and Girl Scout activities or for Field Day. Again, teachers subverted the bureaucracy's community-improvement programme by engaging in perfunctory surveys. Detailed action programmes for changing a particular aspect of community life were eschewed for various reasons.

The teachers claimed they were overburdened with work, an excuse not without basis. Moreover, such projects did not have lasting effects, as the ill-fated community school movement had shown.

But community education through classroom instruction continued as a nominal part of the curriculum. In such subjects as health, it was hoped that the teachers' work with pupils would somehow be communicated to and adopted by parents. This was the approach supposed to be used

to change villagers' attitudes, which was considered essential to permanent community improvement. There was no evidence that children were practising ideas taught in the class at home, much less that parents were adopting them too. Moreover, children as models and teachers of parents ran counter to the culturally defined notion of the old and the adult as exemplars.

The concept of the community school had never really taken root in the barrio. The efforts of the school in this direction tended to focus on peripheral matters. Lamps on gate posts, flower gardens, the school lagoon-- these projects were pursued with zeal that deflected attention from urgent needs such as water supply.

In view of this, the school could hardly be called a force for social change. Technological change, represented by Meralco, was remote from the concerns of the school. On the one hand, the new technical men were additional sources of funds; they were the ready targets of ticket sellers and donation seekers. On the other hand, they threatened the peace and morals of the village with their excessive drinking and indiscriminate courtship of local women.

The school taught survival behaviours rather than innovative ideas. Traditional values and basic literacy skills facilitated survival within the local culture, but did not induce openings for change. Graduation from the barrio school was merely a first and remote hurdle to entry into employment and economic security.

For teachers and school heads, school was a place for teaching pupils the three R's and the basic values of the community. This work they acknowledged as monotonous, but necessary. Despite its nominal commitment to community education, the bureaucracy also concurred with this view the importance of the three R's, for at the end of the school year, the district supervisor came to test first-grade pupils on reading skills.

Teaching was not the profession that most of the teachers and school heads would have voluntarily chosen, but it was one way to have a regular, if modest, income. And it was possible to supplement it with other money-making activities, provided one was prudent, cautious and frugal with one's earnings. Part of one's salary could be saved for the purchase of precious land, the construction of houses or apartments for rent, the setting up of a store or duck-raising project. Or it could even be lent at interest rates that yielded a neat profit. Wealth was more important than academic or professional distinction. These professional and occupational pursuits made possible the education and economic advancement of one's children.

In any case, the three R's and local values must be taught through rote, hortatory lectures, drill and physical punishment, if need be. Both parents and teachers agreed on the efficacy of physical punishment as a disciplinary measure and as a way of developing those behavioural patterns considered desirable in the culture.

As for the skill-academic subjects, neither parents nor teachers questioned the mechanistic methods employed. On the contrary, both parents and teachers considered new maths objectionable because it was such a recondite and circuitous way of attaining results that had historically been achieved through a shorter, if less logical method. After all, the important thing was for pupils to learn the basic arithmetical skills so that they could stand on their own in actual situations

where these skills were needed. But the logic of inquiry and alternative approaches underlying new maths were for those who would proceed to high school, which was most unlikely for many of the barrio pupils. New maths was not only time-consuming but also as mechanistically taught as the old arithmetic. Almost instinctively teachers objected to extending tedium for the same results. New maths illustrated the ironic fate of curricular innovations prescribed from above. It was supposed to rescue instruction from tedium and indifference-- to stimulate intellectual curiosity and improve the quality of class activity. Yet it ended up by being learned through routinized formula no less deadening than the old arithmetic. It seems probable that the continuing treatment of teachers as antlike workers carrying out curricular directives with docility and indifference was related in some way to the failure of curricular changes.

The implicit faith of parents and teachers in traditional methods was validated by the fact that most children did learn to read, write and compute in rudimentary fashion as long as they stayed in school up to the fourth grade. Most of them turned out to be obedient, respectful and submissive to age-authority. If these were largely consequences of having models in the persons of teachers and other adults rather than of formal instruction, no one would have been distressed by the thought.

Although there was parental and teacher consensus on the proliferation of subjects in the curriculum, there was some disagreement on which ones ought to be discarded. Most parents thought that pedagogical efforts should concentrate on the three R's and the development of proper conduct, but a few believed that the school should be more "realistic" in its subject matter, saying that practical knowledge of farming, horticulture, fishing, mechanics, industrial arts, electricity, household work and community life should be taught because they were useful to villagers. In general, however, villagers saw the community and the school as separate entities, each with its particular functions.

The school staff affirmed this separateness with their adverse remarks on parents' reluctance to spend on the elementary schooling of their children and with the protective invoking of bureaucratic rules to defend erring teachers from parental attack. This was illustrated when a head teacher forcefully asserted her authority to discipline a teacher who was accused of inflicting harsh physical punishment on a boy instead of yielding to parental pressure to report the case to a higher office. Again, the same head reprimanded a teacher for not defending an erring fellow teacher from parental criticism and aggression. In brief, while villagers and school staff shared some views on certain aspects of the school, there was by no means a feeling of complete unity between the school and the community.

Nowhere was this separateness more clearly evident than in the conflicts that arose in situations where cash contributions were involved. Villagers complained in vain about the contributions and fees levied on them, and sought to have the teachers share, or even assume, such expenses. Teachers, however, had their own involuntary contributions extracted from them by the bureaucracy. Both groups felt they had legitimate grievances against compulsory monetary contributions. In both cases resistance was based on the same principle: expenses for certain institutional needs should be financed from sources other than one's personal funds, even though one might

conceivably profit remotely or abstractly from such expenditures, viz., those for the entertainment of important guests to maintain the image of collective hospitality.

In such associations as the PTA, parents and teachers joined efforts to raise donations from external sources through the exploitation of political connections and a few philanthropically inclined persons. Pride in concrete, visible, physical improvements was sustained by vigorous campaigns for donations from outside. Self-sustenance, at least as far as money for local projects was concerned, was rejected. For self-evident reasons, no one in the barrio or school, except possibly Don Jovino, thought himself possessed of sufficient means to make regular contributions to projects, however commendable.

This behaviour pattern of the PTA was replicated in those of village associations such as social and religious clubs and even the barrio council. The modus operandi was essentially the same. A proposed project, generally something observable and concrete, such as a stage or basketball court, would be approved, and a campaign to finance it from external sources launched. If ever the campaign was successful, there would be a great deal of self-congratulation and usually a concluding ritual, such as the inauguration of the new barrio hall by an important official.

To return to the curriculum, while they agreed on the priority of basic skills and proper behaviour, teachers and school heads were largely undecided on the subjects to be considered unessential. All conceded that good manners and right conduct, or character education, and the three R's were of supreme importance, but it was difficult to ascertain whether work education, art, music, health or physical education could be eliminated from the curriculum without depriving pupils of some basic knowledge or skill. Although relatively new, science was already a sacrosanct subject, if the official messages from the bureaucracy and the national leadership were to be believed. Under no circumstances could it be discarded. Of course, it was sometimes combined with health, but this was merely to prevent the elimination of the latter. The combination of two subjects, such as art and music, was a favourite solution to the nagging problem of curriculum overflow. Part of this overflow was caused by laws passed under the pressure of vested interests. By reducing the time allocated to subjects, combining subjects evaded the issue of priorities, and pacified ardent proponents of particular courses.

Language, which included reading, was indispensable, but it comprised an area of special difficulty. For the last ten years at least, public school pupils had been taught in the vernacular in the first two grades, and in English thereafter. Filipino, the national language, which is based on Tagalog, was taught as a subject in all grades, as was English. In effect, non-Tagalog pupils had to learn two foreign languages, Filipino and English. However, even though Filipino had been prescribed by legislative fiat more than twenty years ago, it was certainly used more widely now than say, ten years ago. Compulsory instruction in Filipino allowed Filipinos from different linguistic areas to communicate with one another. Nevertheless, formal instruction in it was by no means easy.

Parenthetically, the notion that English was a lingua franca of Filipinos was a misconception. True, most had a rudimentary grasp of it which permitted minimal communication with English-speaking persons. In addition, certain cultural minority groups who had come under the influence

of Caucasian missionaires did speak English, but this did not mean that it was spoken by the majority of the people.

Since the barrio was a Tagalog area, pupils presumably had less difficulty with Filipino. Teachers and school heads claimed that pupils learned content more easily when they were taught in Tagalog or Filipino. In fact, pupils were encouraged to read Tagalog comics to accelerate the development of reading skills. While these materials were not exactly ideal, they served the purpose in a situation where most household had neither books, magazines nor newspapers, and where not even the school had a library.

One facet of the urban-centred surge of nationalism was the demand to shift from English to Filipino as the medium of teaching at all levels. Nationalism was a favourite posture and slogan of the bureaucracy. It was implicit in the community school idea, in the use of the vernacular to teach first and second graders, in the increasing use of Filipino in public speeches and messages, in the number of subjects based on Philippine history and community life. This stance was also a defense against the charge of neocolonialism.

The response of the teachers, school heads and parent informants to this demand was equivocal. On the one hand, most of them conceded the inevitable and appropriate use of Filipino as the language of instruction, especially in the elementary schools. At the same time, they specified that teaching materials be made adequate before the change was made. For this a programme of translation over a considerable period of time was organised. Unless this was done, they anticipated difficulties for everyone concerned, particularly the teachers. Moreover, its implementation had to be gradual and well conceived.

On the other hand, none among the key informants would willingly give up English. In fact, those parents who had the least command of it were the most insistent on its retention because of its international and prestige value, and its association with advanced economies. Indubitably, some ability to speak and write this language was a requisite to employment. If this was part of the neocolonialism so devoutly deplored by urban nationalists, it was regrettable. But, as indicated, survival was more important to the villagers than nationalism.

The question of the particular value of English to pupils who would go no farther than the third or fourth grade was not pursued. That teachers continually clarified instruction in English with on-the-spot Tagalog translation which cast grave doubts on the claims of the utility of English. Teachers themselves appeared to have difficulties in English, despite a college education.

The uncertainty of responses to the idea of pruning the curriculum to a reasonable and manageable level suggested that the curriculum per se was not a major concern of teachers or school heads, despite verbal acknowledgement of its importance. The curriculum was seen as the business of the bureaucracy: teachers and school heads were merely implementing workers and officers. The unilateral transmission of curricular directives from higher offices to the schools through memorandums and official meetings was one proof of this. Since curricular policy and programme were high-level decisions, perfunctory compliance with directives was the complementary teacher-response.

If school activities were any guage, then fund raising, the maintenance and improvement of physical plant and grounds, the preparation of reports, and other ritual activities were a major concern of teachers and school heads. There being no regular sources of money for physical improvements and miscellaneous expenses in the school; and for the entertainment of visitors, official or otherwise, it devolved on the staff to develop ways of raising money within the framework of regulations. Fund raising was accomplished ingeniously, skirting thinly the edge of formal laws and rules, with the tacit consent of school heads and administrators, and possibly of the bureaucracy itself. A corollary to this emphasis on physical improvement was the great care exercised to protect school property. Everything was locked up after school hours (some equipment was locked up even during classes) and every item was carefully inventored at the end of the school year.

The home economics fund drawn largely from bread and candy sales, occasional benefit dances, and donations of cash and goods, was used for miscellaneous needs of the school, like the putting up of the iron-grill railings on the front lawn. These railings served no genuinely useful purpose, but gave the lawn a neat and pleasing appearance.

With the sales proceeds, teachers were also spared from giving personal contributions for entertaining and presenting official visitors with gifts, but there was no total escape from them. The district office passed fund-drive tickets received from higher quarters to the teachers who either shared the cost among themselves or, in some instances, persuaded pupils to contribute part of the cost. What made such contributions so distasteful was that there were no concrete returns from them; they were collected as part of public charity campaigns, the benefits of which were seldom felt in the school or barrio.

For the mimeographing and duplication of test papers, the rental of the amplifier and related equipment during Field Day, graduation and other school celebrations or for the repair of a classroom damaged by a typhoon, pupils and/or their parents could always be persuaded or coerced into contributing small sums, albeit they grumbled much. If requests for donation were rejected, final grades and graduation certificates were withheld, and the small number of free textbooks were not distributed. However, there seemed to be no relentless efforts exerted to collect in the event that genuine inability to pay was pleaded.

This emphasis on money-raising within the school system served as a model for the teachers to raise money on their own account. Thus, lending money at exorbitant rates of interests or saving one's salary to finance the operation of a billiard table came to be regarded as a legitimate activity of resident teachers. From the bureaucratic point of view, some activities were against the rules, but it would take a rash, ill-advised school head to file charges without adequate proof. Besides, teachers as well as villagers were adapt at covering their tracks. The former school head who charged the resident teachers with being interested primarily in making money was not off the mark. It was an outlook fostered by both the bureaucracy and the community. Yet if such an idea had been suggested to them, it would have been vigorously rejected.

As already mentioned, the bulk of expenses went to the maintenance and improvement of the physical plan and grounds, for this was the first thing noted during official visits. Beauty,

neatness, cleanliness of grounds and buildings were a credit to the school administration, as were pupil and teacher performance in official and graded tests, the participation of the staff in in-service seminars and training programmes, in fund-raising projects such as beauty contests, and the school's involvement in extra-curricular activities such as the Boy and Girl Scouts movements as evidenced by attendance reports.

Therefore, reports on almost every aspect of the school, from enrolment to the rating performance of teachers, occupied a great deal of the time and energies of the staff. Not the least of these reports were those on sales and collections. Some reports were required on short notice, others periodically, and many more at the end of the school year When reports were due, all other activities were subordinated to report preparation in accordance with formats prescribed by higher offices. Documents reporting adequate enrolment, substantial collections, good attendance at extra-curricular activities and in-service training projects, and even those merely proposing action or academic programmes were highly valued and considered symbols of accomplishment. Statistics on community surveys were proudly displayed on a bulletin board as evidence of the school's community-improvement programme. Reports in neatly arranged files constituted proof that something was being done, that projects and activities assigned by higher echeolons in the bureaucracy were not being neglected.

In this manner the bureaucracy itself was amply equipped with statistical information which it could use to prove its contribution to national goals and plans, and to defend itself from its critics. Conceivably, documents and reports sometimes became substitutes for achievement, instead of merely serving as symbols. After all, statistics, which most reports contained, were a part of the empirical, no-nonsense approach publicly favoured by government offices. They carried the approval of scholars, academicians and national leaders. Statistics as a form of evidence were therefore prestigious in a national government that was increasingly oriented, at least verbally, to rational modes of operation.

The barrio council also showed this partiality for reports. Towards the end of its term, the barrio captain took all records of minutes of the meetings so that they could be prepared more properly and left as a respectable legacy to succeeding councils.

Another important area in the school was that of ritual activities, which were not unrelated to fund raising and the preparation of reports. Very often, accounts on such activities constituted the content of reports. They were financed largely from money raised by the staff. Visits of school officials, teachers' district meetings, school staff meetings, school-opening exercises, graduation ceremonies, demonstration lessons and Field Day celebrations were among the regular activities in which virtually the entire staff was involved. Staff meetings were held to prepare for these occasions with various tasks being assigned to the teachers by the school head. As in the district meetings, these were primarily the occasions for the transmission of instructions or directives. Great care went into the planning of these activities, the staff taking minute details into account. Even the menu for the occasion was sometimes an item on the agenda, although usually this was left to the discretion of the home economics teacher. Such activities tended to strengthen

the sense of the school as a part of the larger educational system. They gave the staff and perhaps the pupils a feeling of importance. At the same time, teachers and pupils alike were under scrutiny on such occasions, so that the feeling of being evaluated by officials who were present was palpable. It was important that such activities be carried out smoothly and successfully, if the school was to maintain a respectable standing in the district, the district office being its closest link to the bureaucracy and its immediate supervisory agency.

As for conceptions of good leadership, it was clear that teachers preferred the quietly authoritarian approach and forcefulness of Melecia Martines to the timid, if warm, style of her successor. There was general aversion to the third school head whose overriding preoccupation with physical improvements led to the levying of onerous contributions on the teachers. Decisiveness without aggressiveness and a soft and polite approach without loss of authority were the qualities of leadership the teachers approved. They wanted clear-cut directives to be given to them in a non-dictatorial manner. That the school administrator generally succeeded in doing this suggested that this might be a culturally defined style of leadership. Nor were the teachers alone in this choice. Villagers, confronted with the official leadership of the barrio captain and the informal, yet forceful, if somewhat dictatorial, leadership of Don Jovino, often chose the latter. Male leaders were allowed more latitude vis-à-vis being dictatorial. An important factor in effective leadership, whether in the school or community, was that of the ability to get things done, to meet requests and/or demands through political shrewdness, adeptness at interpersonal relations or professional ability or all these. Thus, the successful leadership of a new school administrator or barrio official was not confirmed until it had been tested in this particular area. Did she or he have access to the power structure and the resources for obtaining concessions and/or favours from it? The question of whether such concessions or favours were a matter of right or law was considered irrelevant; effectiveness in getting them was the crux of leadership. For the villagers, it was right to reciprocate what was conceived to be a favour received or a debt incurred. Was this success in getting things done likely to extend over an appreciable period of time or was it essentially ephemeral? What was the quid pro for obtaining favours? What form of service, favours or concessions would be required implicitly of the leader and/or his followers? Thus, if funds had been released for the construction of a school building or the execution of some school project, the school leader might commit his vote in an election as well as those of his subordinates whom he could persuade or pressure.

As for the pupils, the observations, the few interviews and conversations with some of them indicated their acceptance of the school as a place where reading, writing and arithmetic were to be learned even at the cost of monotonous repetition, not to mention physical punishment. Pupils regarded the latter largely with equanimity and sometimes with approval.

Pupils were obedient, respectful and submissive to authority. They generally responded to teacher commands with alacrity. If there was any resistance, it was in the unobserved delays in the execution of orders, in rebellious murmurings among themselves, but rarely was there a direct, open challenge to adult authority.

In addition to the acknowledged purposes of the school, pupils learned that it must be financed by activities such as selling bread and candy, and holding beauty contests and benefit dances, if it was to survive as an institution. The notion of direct participation in fund raising as an essential part of school activity was instilled at an early stage of schooling.

If school activities seemed to focus less on instruction than on money-raising, physical improvements and celebrations, it was because the staff, the pupils and even the parents were responding to a system that emphasized and rewarded such activities. This system was the bureaucracy of which the school was an extension at the grassroots level. There was a logic in the thematic selectiveness of school activity: it was essential to the continuance of the bureaucracy. The individual school, the money-raising for physical improvements, the reports and other paper work, and the other "ritual" activities gave the larger bureaucracy a reason for existing and a justification for continuing its essentially self-maintaining functions. This bureaucratic socialization of staff and, to a lesser degree, of pupils and parents, proceeded apace once the individual was co-opted into these activities.

That the schools continued to be perceived by some sectors as institutional agencies for social change and community improvement, and, more recently, as organizations for manpower development, was as much due to the glib repetition of this aphorism over a long period of time as to the school people's blindness due to close identification with a system. The important thing was that the school was successful in teaching survival behaviours rather than innovative ideas. Consequently, the bureaucracy of which it was a part appeared less intent on social change than on self-maintenance. Even as the school taught survival behaviours to pupils, it insured its own survival as an institution and, to some degree, that of the higher bureaucracy beyond it.

It is therefore important to note that the school staff was responding to the demands imposed by a bureaucratic system that was not necessarily opposed to the culture of the community. While there were variations in the behaviour of teachers and school heads, there was sufficient similarity to justify the assumption that patterns of responding to these demands had been developed.

Equally important is that it was in the school that two reference cultures met, that of the bureaucracy and that of the community, and perhaps the teachers were the best embodiments of this convergence. Again, this study suggests that it is misleading to postulate a contradiction or opposition between these two cultures. There was a large area of agreement in terms of such traditional values as obedience, age-respect, a pragmatic attitude towards what constituted achievement and the money-raising requisite to it, as well as a mutual recognition of an responsiveness to political power and influence. If the school people were impressed with neat lawns and buildings, the barrio folk were equally impressed with and proud of the new barrio hall and the basketball court. The money-raising antecedent to such achievements was an important activity in itself. Leaders of school and community were evaluated primarily on the basis of ability to get things done through political shrewdness.

Community and school differed in some aspects. For instance, the teaching of literacy and of English was recognized as an institutionalized function of the school entirely separated from the community. The community, of which the basic unit was the family, provided the millieu in which the child was born, socialized, and became a fully functioning adult.

Chart 2. The meaning of the school

Aspect of school culture	Community	Teachers	School bureaucracy
Three R's	Essential for survival for employment: first step towards further schooling	Same view as community's	Good ratings in tests on 3 R's are evidence that bureaucracy is achieving one of its objectives - literacy
Proper conduct	School is expected to reinforce community norms of age-respect, obedience, submission to authority, Utang Na Loob (a deep sense of indebtedness). Anp Pakikisana (good interpersonal relations with others)	Teachers endorse community values but reserve explicit teaching for bureaucratically endorsed values	Age-respect, obedience and submission to authority are officially endorsed. Utang na Loob and Pakikisama are officially proscribed as deterrents to national development
Physical punishment	Physical punishment should be used to achieve prescribed norms when necessary	Physical punishment is used in schools	It proscribes physical punishment but knows it is practised.
Language: English	English must be retained for its economic and prestige value	Same view as community's. A requisite for college education.	Same view as teacher's
Language:Filipino	Filipino may be medium of instruction	Filipino may be medium of instruction but only after teaching materials have been translated and developed	Filipino is to be medium of instruction to sustain nationalistic posture and ward off charges of neocolonialism
Community-development ideology	Main job of the school is to teach Three R's and proper conduct community development is an alien ideology	Same view as community's. Community-development activities are unrewarding burden	Schools should engage in community development thus fulfilling their rôles as instruments of national development giving credit to upper bureaucracy and educational leaders. Community development is a politically profitable platform.
Curricular innovations e. g. new maths conceptual and inquiry approach to science and social studies	There are too many subjects school should confine itself to academic-skill subjects, chiefly the 3 R's	Same view as community's but reduction on subjects in the business of bureaucracy curricular innovations like new maths are of little value except as credentials for further schooling	Curricular innovations are prestigious; they give bureaucracy a reputation for being in step with "modern" educational advances especially those in the US this is also politically profitable vis-à-vis educational funds from developed countries

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Chart 2 (continued)

Fund raising	They disapproved local fund-raising for school purposes especially when they and their children are captive contributors	A rewarding activity in two ways: when spent on physical improvements there is praise from school head and bureaucracy; when spent on entertainment of visitors and other involuntary contributions it spares their own pockets	Officially disapproved but physical improvements financed from this are a credit to school administration and to bureaucracy in general
Work education	Children should be learning 3 R's not utilized as school labourers	Since bureaucracy insists on it children carry out domestic school tasks labelled "work education" teachers themselves eschew manual labour in school	Work education is part of work ethic cultivated as another part of politically profitable platform.

If the hidden curriculum of money-raising, physical improvements, preparation of reports, and "ritual" activities went unrecognized by the principal protagonists in the school, it seemed, nevertheless, more effective than the daily programme of formal lessons. It also complicated the rôle of the school, which was defined by a variety of expectations from different sources: the bureaucracy, the staff, the parents and leaders. It was a rôle that could conceivably change over time, but neither so suddenly nor so dramatically as some educators and national planners would wish. Whether in such circumstances the can relate in some way to developmental change still remains to be seen.

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Since 1977 the writer has resumed the study of the barrio, this time to ascertain how it has changed since electrification.

In both Paalaman and Ligtal there are certain common problems:

1. Inadequate buildings, toilets, water supply, furniture and maintenance;
2. Inadequate and sometimes complete lack of a sufficient number of textbooks, reference books and other instructional materials;
3. Inadequately motivated teachers, deriving from multiple demands of the bureaucracy in the case of Ligtal and neglect, in the case of Paalaman. Another equally cogent reason is low salaries and low status;
4. The promotion of competent teachers to supervisory or administrative positions;
5. Irrelevance in curricular content deriving from excessive curriculum uniformity;
6. Possibly inadequate pre-service and inservice training; and
7. The need for more professionalism.

CHAPTER II
CONCLUSIONS

The regionalization of educational administration is intended to improve communication within the region, but this presupposes better roads and a more efficient postal, telephone and telegraphic system. Despite substantial progress, road construction still has a long way to go. The tendency to concentrate on main roads along urban centres naturally results in neglect of feeder roads for farmers and rural children and youth, messages via widely distributed transistor radios might be considered.

One simple measure that can improve the delivery of education is the reduction of reports to district, provincial, regional or Ministry offices to an absolute minimum. An information system which ensures the regular flow of essential data between administrative units and schools without disrupting the task of instruction should be established. This has yet to be done. In addition to about sixty reports required annually of school heads, there are reports demanded at short notice for the statistics of different central government agencies. Such reports often duplicate each other.

Contributions and management participation by local people can be accelerated only when the people find it more rewarding: i. e., when they find that schooling results in genuine improvement in the quality of life, at least for their children, if not for themselves.

There are already standards for school buildings and furniture established by technically qualified people; the problem is one of financing.

The IBRD is funding the production of textbooks, the content of which, however, should be carefully tailored to regional particularities and to national culture.

The development of books with more Philippine content, of simple laboratory and vocational equipment from local materials and resources would be more economic and relevant. Skills in developing appropriate technology and, when necessary, technological adaptations are better than outright transfers.

Supervisors and head teachers need time for their essential tasks; they also need a re-orientation from the monitoring/inspecting attitude to helping teachers on substantive matters. Written comments on standard forms are minimally useful.

Both in-service and pre-service training may require radical restructuring. For the former, mobile units of professional people holding classes with demonstrations and an adequate supply of materials in some centre where teachers drawn from various rural schools can gather seems worth trying. This would reverse the trend of sending the teachers too far away from their schools for such training.

In the case of the latter, more community-based experiences which transcend practice teaching, are urgently needed. The purpose is to give them a firm sense of reality, of primary values and a knowledge of local culture. In other words, the practicum part should not be a more process of socialization in bureaucratic procedures.

Specific recommendations

Given the socio-economic and cultural context of schooling in rural areas and a situation in which structural change is a remote possibility, perhaps the rural school should concentrate its efforts on teaching:

1. The three R's, if only to ensure that pupils derive the maximum cognitive advantages available, not to mention the fact that these are instrumental in acquiring further skills and promoting participation in political and economic decisions;
2. Proper conduct, to facilitate the integration of pupils as members of the community and to provide them with the wherewithal for psycho-social survival;
3. One or two pre-vocational or vocational skills which are genuinely relevant to the local economy in the first place, and if possible, to the larger economy, in the second place.

Final comment

At the time of writing, national planners, hard pressed to allocate scarce resources among many important national needs, have implicitly decided that formal schooling is much too expensive to expand in the conventional way. Some cost-cutting measures have been adopted, such as the back-to basics movement, more work-oriented school programmes, modules and self-learning kits, and increased use of the mass media for the delivery of education.

Non-formal education as an alternative for dropouts and out-of-school youth has been "discovered" and officially recognized through the creation of the Office of Deputy Minister for non-formal education whose task will be primarily co-ordination.

The export-oriented economic policy is based on the development of a pool of skilled and semi-skilled labourers and technicians. Non-formal training would concentrate on "employable" or "self-employable" skills in traditional areas such as agriculture and newer ones such as welding as well as handicrafts for the production of tourist articles. It is a policy that stresses economic growth.

While wages must remain low to invite the continuing inflow of foreign investment, these measures are calculated to deflect the heavy social demand for academic training and college degrees. It has also been noted that foreign sponsors of non-formal education sometimes hint that raising the

rural dweller's productivity can be achieved without eliminating his illiteracy, and that the former has over-riding importance. It is submitted that literacy, is a pre-requisite for reflective, critical thought which, in turn, is a fundamental component of true national development.

These sketchy remarks suggest the dependence of the educational system on the polity and economy. It is the polity and the economy, including the world market, which dictate educational policies and goals, and not the other way around. This is the obvious structural-functional view and it applies readily to the Philippine case. The educational improvements proposed are non-systemic and are not based on equity-oriented policies. Therefore, two questions must be raised: (i) Must the rural poor as well as the urban majority be consigned indefinitely to their lower social stratum through education, formal and non-formal, that subserves the purpose of maintaining the inequitable status quo? (ii) How can education help bring about genuine social change within the structural constraints imposed by the larger social system?

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THE ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION IN A SELECTED REMOTE RURAL AREA IN SRI LANKA

by D. P. Wijegoonsasekera

CHAPTER I
OBJECTIVES AND SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study has been prepared in response to a request made by the UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning in Paris for presentation at the expert meeting held in Kathmandu. This paper seeks to identify some of the major critical problems associated in the administration and management of education in a selected district - Anuradhapura.

The administration and management of education in remote rural areas presents considerable problems which may be characteristic, of most parts of the region. However, the magnitude of such problems and the social, economic and cultural contexts in which these problems manifest themselves may differ from country to country. Nevertheless it is hoped that this paper will highlight some of the common areas of concern in relation to the administration and management of education in remote areas and be useful to those who are faced with similar problems in the region.

Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are as follows: (i) to identify the significant problems confronted in the organization of educational programmes in a selected remote rural area; (ii) to formulate some basic guidelines to be used in the solution of such problems, wherever appropriate.

Chapter II of this study presents a general description of the area considered for the study with special reference to the provision of educational facilities in the area.

Chapter III of the study presents an outline of the system of management and administration of education in the area considered for the study with particular reference to the supply of various resource inputs.

Chapter IV of the study identifies the problems confronted in the management and administration of schools in the area considered for the study.

This is followed by Chapter V - Concluding comments.

Methodology used in the study

The statistical information required for the study has been obtained from the 1978 school census data as well as from the census of population 1971, Sri Lanka, published by the Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka. The other material presented in the study has been obtained from reports obtained from observation in the field. This information has been appropriately modified in terms

of the background experience obtained from the field by the author of the study himself. The limited time available for this study did not permit a systematic gathering of information by a specific survey carried out for the purpose. However, the facts presented in the study are indicative of the nature of the problems associated with the administration and management of education in remote rural areas.

In this study the term remote, rural area should be interpreted to mean a location with inadequate transport, communication and other infrastructure facilities when compared to those that obtain in highly developed urban cities such as the capital city of Sri Lanka, Colombo. The term education should be interpreted to mean formal programmes of teaching and learning organised in schools for children of school-going age. The term administration as referred to in the study should be interpreted to mean the various aspects of organization including the provision of resource inputs and programmes of supervision, direction and evaluation.

CHAPTER II
GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE AREA CONSIDERED FOR THE STUDY-ANURADHAPURA

Anuradhapura District has been selected for this study for two reasons. Firstly in view of the fact that Anuradhapura District has a preponderance of 'small schools' i.e. those having enrolments less than 100 pupils each and secondly in view of its cultural and historical significance.

Anuradhapura District has a total area of 2,838 square miles which is nearly 11 per cent of the total area of Sri Lanka. It is located in the North Central Province of the country. The total population of Anuradhapura District is 438,853 whereas the total population of Sri Lanka is 12.7 million (1971 population census data, Department of Census and Statistics). Thus the Anuradhapura District's population is approximately 3.5 per cent of the total population of the country.

Socio-economic and cultural background and geographical location

Anuradhapura has the rare distinction of being the most ancient city of Sri Lanka and remained its capital for over 1000 years. Its history is recorded in two principle chronicles. The Dipawansa and the Mahawansa. The earliest reference to Anuradhapura in these chronicles is to an event in the time of the Buddha in the 6th Century B.C. which states that the Buddha on his third visit to Sri Lanka sanctified the sites where the Sri Maha Bodhi was to be planted and the Maha Thupa (now known as Ruwanweliseya), and the Thuparama were to be constructed in later times.

The inhabitation of Anuradhapura began in or about the 6th Century itself with the first Aryan colonisation of Sri Lanka when Vijaya, the son of a local Indian ruler named Sinhabhu landed in the island, and having suppressed the aboriginal Yakkas established himself there as the first Aryan ruler of the Island. One of his Ministers named Anuradha is then said to have founded a village at the present Anuradhapura and named Anuradhagama, meaning 'village of Anuradha'. Thus, Anuradhapura gradually became the most significant village settlement in Sri Lanka.

Anuradhapura which came into existence as a small village during the 6th Century B.C., rose into prominence with its selection as the Capital of Sri Lanka. The introduction of Buddhism in the 3rd Century B.C. facilitated Anuradhapura's development into a great centre of Buddhist learning and cultural activity. It continued as the capital of Sri Lanka until the last quarter of the 10th Century.

Anuradhapura which is the capital of the North Central Province of Sri Lanka is located nearly 130 miles (208 kilometers) from the capital city of Sri Lanka viz. Colombo. Anuradhapura District is characterized by a difficult terrain, particularly in rural areas where transport, communication and other infrastructure facilities are mostly inadequate. It has a low population density

(151.5) compared with the average figure for the country (505). It is fairly rich in many natural resources such as forests. Approximately 70 per cent of the population are engaged in agriculture such as paddy cultivation, cash-crop cultivation, and livestock farming. Anuradhapura District also has several major and minor irrigation schemes constructed by the ancient Kings. The Mahaweli Development Project which is one of the key development activities of the Sri Lanka Government covers the greater part of Anuradhapura District and is aimed at raising agricultural productivity through irrigation schemes, generation of employment and raising the quality of life of the rural population.

The population of Anuradhapura is of mixed composition comprising ethnic groups such as low country Sinhalese, Kandyan Sinhalese, Sri Lanka Tamils, Indian Tamils, Sri Lanka Moors, Burghers, Malays and others. These different ethnic groups have distinctive characteristics which have evolved on the basis of differences in the social, historical and religious backgrounds of each group. However, the greater percentage of population in the Anuradhapura District comprises Kandyan Sinhalese (69%). Approximately 90 per cent of the population in Anuradhapura are Buddhists in comparison with the average for the country of (67.30).

The average household size in the Anuradhapura District is 5.87, the number of income receivers per household is 1.21 and the number of dependents per household is 4.66.

Basic statistical data in relation to the provision of educational facilities in the area

The Anuradhupura Education District comprises seven electorates viz. Medawachchiya, Horowapatana, Anuradhapura East, Anuradhapura West, Kalawewa, Kekirawa and Mihintale. The extent of these electorates and their respective population densities are presented below in order to indicate to some extent the distribution of population in the area:

Table 1. Population densities

Electorate	Population	Land Area Square Miles	Crude Population density
Medawachchiya	76 923	600	128.3
Horowapatana	54 263	546	99.3
Anuradhapura East	66 118	177.3	393.0
Auradhapura West	68 706	755	91.9
Kalawewa	64 830	221.3	293
Mihintale	47 451	250.0	190.0
Kekirawa	51 762	288.3	179.5
Total Anuradhapura District	438 853	2 837.9	151.5

(1971 Population Census Data)

Thus the highest population density is at Anuradhapura East (393) while the lowest is at Anuradhapura West (91.9).

The distribution of educational facilities in the seven electorates which comprises the Anuradhapura District is presented below with a view to highlighting the disparities that exist in this connection:

Table 2. Distribution of educational facilities

Electorate	No. of schools	Square miles	Enrolment	Total No. of teachers	Square miles per school
Medawachchiya	97	600	18 035	673	6.20
Horowapatana	88	546	11 834	575	6.42
Anuradhapura East	55	177.3	13 133	605	3.34
Anuradhapura West	66	755	14 039	489	11.40
Kalawewa	60	221.3	9 312	561	3.53
Mihintale	70	250	9 178	470	3.7
Kekirawa	72	288.3	11 404	519	4.0
Total	508	2 837.9	86 935	3 892	-

Source - 1978 School Census Data

Anuradhapura District is characterized by the predominance of schools comprising different enrolment sizes. The following table presents this diversity in school sizes to a considerable extent.

Table 3. School size by enrolment

Enrolment	Number of schools	Percentage of the Total number of schools
Less than 50 pupils	69	12.6
between 51-100	130	26
101-200	139	27.6
201-500	114	22.7
501-1 000	42	8.3
1 001-1 500	12	2.4
1 501-2 000	1	-
Over 2 000 pupils	2	0.4

Source: 1978 School Census Data, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka

In terms of the above analysis, approximately 40 per cent of the schools in the Anuradhapura District have less than 100 pupils each. Approximately 66 per cent (2/3) of the total number of schools in the Anuradhapura District have less than 200 pupils each. About 90 per cent of the total number of schools in the Anuradhapura District has less than 500 pupils each.

The distribution of schools in the various educational districts also shows much diversity as illustrated by the following:

Table 4. Distribution of schools

District	Number of schools per square mile (school density)	Population per square mile (Pop. density)	No. of schools per 1000 inhabitants
Colombo South	5.5	22 776	2.60
Kalutara	0.72	1 173	6.10
Galle	0.81	1 135	7.1
Jaffna	0.57	705	8.0
Anuradhapura	0.18	151.5	11.6
Sri Lanka	0.35	505	7.0

Source: 1978 School Census Data, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka and data from Population Statistics, Department of Census and Statistics

The above data seem to indicate that the number of schools per square mile in the Anuradhapura District is much lower than the average figure for the country which is 0.35 and is insignificant when compared with the figure for the capital city of Colombo, which is 5.5. However, the number of schools per 10,000 inhabitants is considerably higher in the Anuradhapura District when compared with the corresponding figures for the capital city, Colombo and for the Island as a whole.

The average class-size in the district also shows much diversity due to the wide range of variation in enrolments and the numbers of schools that obtain in the various districts. This data in respect of a few selected districts including Anuradhapura highlights these differences:

Table 5. Average class sizes

District	Average Class size
Colombo South	34.7
Kalutara	28.0
Galle	27.5
Jaffna	28.0
Anarudhapura	20.9
Sri Lanka	26.7

Source: School Census Data 1978

This data seem to indicate that the average class-size in schools in the Anuradhapura District is much lower when compared with the corresponding figures for Colombo as well as for the country as a whole.

Sri Lanka is characterized by the presence of a large number of 'small schools' each with less than 100 pupils. Approximately 23 per cent of the total number of Government schools in Sri Lanka are such small schools, each having less than 100 pupils (2 119 schools out of a total number of 9 072 Government schools). Anuradhapura District has approximately 200 such schools out of a total number of 508 Government schools. Thus, approximately 40 per cent of the schools in the district have less than 100 pupils each. In comparison, highly developed urban areas such as the capital city of Sri Lanka have only a very small percentage of such small schools, (5 per cent) while the corresponding average figure for the country is only 23 per cent.

The distribution of teaching staff in relation to pupil enrolments in the various educational districts also present much diversity as indicated by the table presented below:

Table 6. Distribution of teaching staff

District	Pupil-teacher Ratio	Pupil-trained Teacher ratio	Pupil-graduate Teacher Ratio
Colombo South	28.0	50.7	165.6
Kalutara	24.8	45.5	255.6
Galle	25.0	51.2	207.6
Jaffna	27.7	43.2	162.7
Anuradhapura	22.4	49.0	249
Sri Lanka	21.4	46.1	235.4

Source: School Census Data 1978, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka.

The pupil-teacher ratio in the Anuradhapura District compares favourably with those that obtain in the other districts selected for the study. In fact the pupil-teacher ratio for Anuradhapura (22.4) is lower than that of the capital city of Colombo (28.0), but higher than the average for the Island (21.4).

The pupil-trained-teacher ratio at Anuradhapura (49) is slightly lower than the corresponding figures for the capital city of Colombo (50.7). However, it is significant to note that the Island average (46.1) is lower than the figure for Anuradhapura. The pupil-graduate teacher ratio for Anuradhapura (249) is much higher than the corresponding figures for Colombo (165.6) and that of the country as a whole (235.4). Hence in the distribution of graduate teachers, there seems to be an imbalance due to various reasons which are beyond the scope of this study.

The teacher-class ratio (i.e. the ratio of the total number of teachers in all categories to the total number of classes of all grades) is also a useful index which reflects the disparities in the distribution of teaching personnel among the various districts.

Such an analysis for some selected districts including Anuradhapura is presented below with a view to highlighting the imbalances that exist:

Table 7. Teacher-class ratios.

District	Teachers per class (Grades 1-12)	Graduate teachers per class (Grades 9-12)	Trained teachers per class (Grades 1-12)
Colombo South	1.20	0.75	0.62
Kalutara	1.10	0.45	0.55
Galle	1.10	0.55	0.52
Jaffna	0.97	0.70	0.63
Anuradhapura	0.80	0.50	0.41
Sri Lanka	1.04	0.53	0.56

Source: School Census Data 1978

In terms of the above analysis the urban developed areas such as Colombo, Kalutara and Galle, the teacher-class ratio exceeds one. In these developed areas the total number of teachers exceeds the total number of classes available which may to some extent be interpreted to mean a surplus. However, this inference needs further study and verification prior to making any explicit conclusions. In the Anuradhapura District the total number of classes exceed the total number of teachers available which reflects a deficit to some extent. The graduate teacher-class ratio and the trained teacher-class ratio for the Anuradhapura District is lower than the corresponding figures for Colombo and for the Island as a whole. This data seem to indicate an imbalance in the distribution of graduate teachers and trained teachers relative to the number of classes in the Anuradhapura District, when compared with the respective figures for the capital city of Colombo and for the Island as a whole. This seems to be an area which needs further study to ascertain the past trends and to launch an appropriate programme of remedial action relating to the deployment and utilization of teaching personnel.

An analysis of the teacher's salary cost per student per month and the teachers' salary cost per class per month by district also highlights certain imbalances that obtain in the distribution of teaching facilities. Such an analysis for some selected districts inclusive of Anuradhapura is presented below for purposes of comparison:

Table 8. Teachers' costs

District	Teachers' salary cost per stud. per mo. Ceylon Rs.	Teachers' salary cost per class per mo. Ceylon Rs.
Colombo South	14.00	481.20
Kalutara	15.30	419.00
Galle	13.10	357.20
Jaffna	15.50	427.50
Anuradhapura	12.50	265.50
Sri Lanka	14.15	374.00

(15.50 Ceylon Rupees equals one U.S. $)

Source: 1978 School Census Data, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka

The teachers' salary cost per student per month at Anuradhapura is Rs. 12.50 while the figure for Colombo is Rs. 14.00 and the Island average is Rs. 14.15. Similarly, the teacher's salary cost per class per month in the Anuradhapura District, is considerably lower than the respective figures for Colombo and the Island average. An earlier analysis of the recurrent costs of education by purpose in Sri Lanka seems to indicate that approximately 90 per cent of the total recurrent costs of education is consumed by teachers' salaries. Hence it is reasonable to assume that the recurrent unit cost in the Anuradhapura District is much less than the respective figures for Colombio and for the Island as a whole. Recurrent unit costs to some extent, reflect the quality of educational services provided in a district, assuming that parental contributions from parents are negligible. This is borne out by the following data:

Table 9. Voluntary contribution to schools

District	Collection in Ceylon Rs.	Enrolment	Collection per pupil per year Rs.
Colombo South	919 530	216 638	4.25
Kalutara	126 772	147 700	0.86
Galle	276 714	170 097	1.63
Jaffna	1 040 479	166 872	6.24
Anuradhapura	58 209	87 912	0.66
Sri Lanka	4 330 400	2 654 505	1.63

Source: School Census Data, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka 1976.

In terms of this data, on the average each student has paid - 66 Cts. as facilities fees in the Anuradhapura District for the year 1976, while the corresponding figure for Colombo is Rs. 4.25 and the country average is Rs. 1.63. Facilities and service fees are quite nominal and do not exceed Rs. 5 per month. They are charged to pupils on an optional basis and the funds so collected are utilised for the provision of supplementary educational facilities and sports activities etc. This data to some extent reflects the socio-economic status of the pupils who live in the Anuradhapura District as compared with their counterparts who live in the developed areas of the country.

Teacher absenteeism is a characteristic feature in remote rural locations such as Anuradhapura. Field studies conducted in this connection seem to indicate that teachers more often absent themselves from work either on Mondays or on Fridays with a view to taking a longer week-end. This is particularly true of teachers who are not permanent residents of the district. Incidence of such absenteeism is particularly high towards the end of each month when most teachers leave for their permanenet homes on receipt of their monthly salaries. An analysis of data on such teacher absenteeism is presented here for purposes of comparison:

Table 10. Teacher absenteeism

District	Total No. of man days if teacher absenteeism were zero (1)	No. of man days lost due to absenteeism (2)	(2) as a percentage of (1)
Colombo South	1 091 931	129 939	11.9
Kalutara	1 107 487	131 790	11.9
Galle	1 122 553	135 525	12.1
Jaffna	1 081 441	123 284	11.4
Anuradhapura	631 616	94 111	14.9
Sri Lanka	18 912 971	2 364 121	12.5

Source: 1978 School Census Data.

In terms of the above data, in the District of Anuradhapura, approximately 15 per cent of the total number of available man days have been lost due to teacher absenteeism, while the corresponding figures for the country as a whole is 12.5. This high rate of teacher absenteeism tends to adversely effect the teaching programme in the schools in the Anuradhapura District. Particularly, in the small schools with less than 100 pupils each with only one or two teachers at the most on the staff the time available for direct teacher-pupil interaction is considerably reduced, thereby adversely affecting the quality of the teaching-learning programme.

A fairly high percentage of teachers serving in remote rural locations such as Anuradhapura are non-home based teachers, i.e., those who are not permanent residents of the District in which they they serve. An analysis carried out in this connection using the 1975 school census data reveals the following:

Table 11. Percentage of teachers working away from their homes

District	Total No. of teachers (1)	Number of non-home based teachers (2)	(2) as a percentage of (1)
Colombo South	7 669	1 310	17.08
Kalutara	5 731	592	11.30
Galle	6 309	822	13.00
Jaffna	5 771	568	9.84
Anuradhapura	3 451	7 393	46.20
Sri Lanka	99 067	22 772	22.98

In terms of the above analysis approximately 46 per cent of the teachers serving in Anuradhapura District are not permanent residents, and this figure is much higher than the respective figures for Colombo and for the country as a whole. This to some extent explains the predominance of high teacher absenteeism in the Anuradhapura District.

The distribution of enrolment by sex classified by district is an indication of the participation by sex of pupils. In Sri Lanka there is constitutional provision for providing equal opportunities for education to all children of school-going age irrespective of caste, race, religion, sex, etc., without discrimination. The degree to which this policy is being implemented in the different districts is to some extent revealed by the following data:

Table 12. Ratios of boys: girls in school

District	Ratio of males to females
Colombo South	1.04
Kalutara	1.04
Galle	1.06
Jaffna	1.06
Anuradhapura	1.10
Sri Lanka	1.02

Source: 1977 School Census Data.

This data indicates that the ratio for Anuradhapura (1.1) is a little higher than the corresponding figures for Colombo, (1.04) and for the Island as a whole 1.02. The slight disparity in participation by sex may be due to several factors which are beyond the scope of the study. Further in the absence of time series data in this connection one finds it difficult to make any useful inferences.

The apparent participation rates of population in the age group 5 to 14 as students classified by the district is an index which to some extent highlights the imbalances that are obtained in the provision of educational facilities in the various districts. Such an analysis carried out in respect districts inclusive of Anuradhapura is presented below for purposes of comparison:

Table 13. School participation rates 5-14 yrs.

District	Population in age group 5-14	Student population in age group 5-14	Participation rate %
Colombo South	341 421	282 092	82.6
Kalutara	171 108	131 380	76.8
Galle	182 021	144 327	79.3
Jaffna	181 825	145 155	79.8
Anuradhapura	112 885	78 673	69.7
Sri Lanka	3 233 905	2 423 773	74.9

Source: The School Census Data 1971, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka and Data from Population Census 1971, Department of Census and Statistics.

This data seem to indicate that the participation rate in Anuradhapura (69.7) is much lower than the rate in Colombo South (82.6) and the average for the country (74.9). Similarly the participation of population in age group 14 - 18 as students classified by Districts also show much diversity as revealed by the following:

Table 14. School participation rates 14-18 years.

District	Population in age group 14-18	Student population in age group 14-18	Participation rate %
Colombo South	157 141	57 925	36.9
Kalutara	75 636	22 438	29.7
Galle	79 221	27 854	35.2
Jaffna	76 194	28 493	37.4
Anuradhapura	45 410	9 247	20.4
Sri Lanka	1 385 622	379 343	27.4

Source: School Census Data 1971, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka and Data from Population Census 1971, Department of Census and Statistics.

The participation of population of age group 14 to 18 as students in the Anuradhapura District (20.4) is much less compared to the corresponding figure for Colombo (36.9) and for the Island as a whole (27.4).

The distribution of Grade 10 Science enrolment among the total student enrolment in Grades 1 to 12 classified by district also reveals much diversity as illustrated by the following:

Table 15. Enrolment in Grade 10 Science

District	Grade 10 Science enrolment/100 Total enrolment grades 1 - 12
Colombo South	4.23
Kalutara	2.25
Galle	2.60
Jaffna	5.60
Anuradhapura	1.43
Sri Lanka	2.35

Source: 1978 School Census Data.

Likewise the distribution of Grade 12 Science Enrolment per 100 of total enrolments grades 1 - 12 classified by district also reveals substantial imbalances as indicated by the following:

Table 16. Enrolment in Grade 12 Science

District	Grade 12 Science enrolment/100 of total enrolment
Colombo South	1.30
Kalutara	0.41
Galle	0.65
Jaffna	1.41
Anuradhapura	0.07
Sri Lanka	0.42

Source: 1978 School Census Data

The wastage of an Education System is revealed to some extent by indices such as drop-out rates and repetition rates. Such an analysis is presented below for purposes of comparison between some selected districts:

Table 17. Drop-out and repetition

District	Average drop-out rate grades 1 to 8 %	Average repetition rate grades 1 to 8 %
Colombo South	6.5	5.4
Kalutara	7.3	11.2
Galle	9.8	12.3
Jaffna	7.2	10.3
Anuradhapura	13.4	14.2
Sri Lanka	10.0	12.3

Source: 1976 School Census Data.

In terms of this data both the drop-out rate and the repetition rate are much higher in the Anuradhapura District than those recorded for Colombo and for the Island as a whole.

Educational achievement and attainment as traditionally conceived is determined to some extent on the basis of public examination results. Such an analysis carried out for some selected districts using the 1974 Statistical Report of the Department of Examinations, Ministry of Education, Sri Lanka, reveals the following information:

Table 18. Examination results

District	No. sat	No. passed	Percentage passing in 3/4 G.C.E. (A/L.) engineering oriented subjects
Colombo South	1 465	526	36.0
Kalutara	216	48	22.22
Galle	337	79	23.44
Jaffna	1 413	431	30.5
Anuradhapura	27	1	3.70
Sri Lanka	4 889	1 423	29.11

District	No. sat	No. passed	Percentage passing in 3/4 G.C.E. (A.L.) Medicine/oriented subjects
Colombo South	1 158	511	44.13
Kalutara	60	24	40.00
Galle	165	41	24.85
Jaffna	701	249	35.52
Anuradhapura	6	1	16.66
Sri Lanka	2 687	994	36.99

The statistical information presented in the preceding pages highlights to a considerable extent the general characteristics of the schools in Anuradhapura. These general characteristics could be further summarized as follows:

- Nearly 40 per cent of the schools have less than 100 pupils each.
- Nearly 2/3 of the total number of schools have less than 200 pupils each.
- School density is extremely low - only 0.18 schools per square mile.
- Number of schools per 10,000 inhabitants is comparatively high (11.6) compared with the average figure for the island.
- Schools in the district have very low average class-sizes (20.9) when compared with the figures for Colombo and for the island.
- Overall pupil-teacher ratio in the Anuradhapura District is lower (22.4) when compared with the figure for Colombo (28).
- Pupil-trained teacher ratio in the Anuradhapura District (49) is higher than the average for the island. (46.1).
- Pupil-graduate teacher ratio in the Anuradhapura District is much higher (249) when compared with the figure for Colombo (165.6).

- The teacher class ratio in the Anuradhapura District is much lower than the corresponding figures for Colombo and average for the country.
- The teacher salary cost per student and the teacher salary cost per class are much lower in the Anuradhapura District than the corresponding figure for Colombo and the average figure for the country.
- The facilities and services fee collected per student in the Anuradhapura District is much lower than the corresponding figures for Colombo and the island.
- Teacher absenteeism in the Anuradhapura District is higher than the corresponding figures for Colombo and for the island.
- Forty-six per cent of the teachers serving in the District have their permanent residences outside the District as against the corresponding figure for Colombo (17) and the island average (23).
- The ratio of male to female participation in education in the Anuradhapura District is slightly higher compared to corresponding figures for Colombo and the country.
- Participation rates in General Education in the District are lower than the corresponding figures for Colombo and the average for the island.
- The Grade 10 and Grade 12 Science enrolment per 100 of total enrolment in the Anuradhapura District are much lower than the corresponding figures for Colombo and the country.
- The average drop-out rate and repetition rate Grades 1 to 8 in the District are higher than the corresponding figures for Colombo and the country.
- The percentage of passes in 3 or 4 General Certificate of Education Science subjects in the Anuradhapura District is much lower compared to the corresponding figures for Colombo and the island average.

In the final analysis it is clear that the schools in the Anuradhapura District are confronted with a series of critical problems which tend to adversely effect the teaching-learning programmes as reflected by poor examination results.

CHAPTER III
AN OVERVIEW OF THE SYSTEM OF ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN THE AREA

The management and administration of education in Sri Lanka is decentralized through the establishment and organization of regional and district offices with supporting staff. For the purpose of analysis the system of management and administration of education in the country could be viewed from four distinct hierarchical levels commencing with the Central Ministry and terminating in the schools.

General administration and management at the central ministry level

The Central Ministry of Education is responsible for policy formulation in relation to General Education (Levels I and II), for obtaining the requisite financial resources through the Annual Budget, for communicating the policy to be implemented at school level and for general direction, co-ordination and evaluation. The Central Ministry is headed by the Minister of Education who is assisted by a Deputy Minister. The Secretary, Ministry of Education who is also the Director-General of Education functions directly under the Minister and is the chief executive and the chief accounting officer. He is assisted by two additional secretaries, three Directors-General of Education and a Deputy Director-General of Education. These officers in turn are assisted by other relevant supporting staff.

District administration

For the purpose of decentralized management and administration of the school system, the country is divided into 30 Education Districts, each district being under the charge of a Director of Education or a Chief Education Officer. The District Administration is responsible for the implementation of General Education policy in the respective districts. This entails the provision of various resource inputs such as teaching staff, equipment, teaching materials and buildings, etc. and the organization of effective programmes of school supervision, in-service teacher education and evaluation. Each of the District Offices have a complement of supporting staff such as Chief Education Officers, Education Officers, Circuit Education Officers, Specialist Circuit Education Officers and Technical staff such as Accountants, School Works Engineers, Clerical and minor staff.

The Anuradhapura Education District has a District Education Office located in the City of Anuradhapura. This office is under the charge of a Director of Education who is assited by a Chief Education Officer. Each of the 7 circuits are under the charge of a Circuit Education Officer.

Circuit administration

The Circuit Education Administration in the Anuradhapura District is under the charge of the Circuit Education Officers. These officers are responsible for the implementation of Government Education Policy through the school system in the respective circuits. This entails among other things, the provision of requisite resources, communicating ministerial policy to the schools and the organization of effective programmes of school supervision, in-service teacher education and evaluation.

Institutional administration

This is concerned with the day to day administration and management of schools which is the responsibility of the respective heads of schools or principles. This entails the organization of teaching programmes according to definite time schedules, allocation of work to teachers, supply and management of teaching resources, general co-ordination, direction and supervision of the teaching learning situation.

Provision of educational resources and organization

Resources required for the implementation of education programmes can be broadly classified under the following:

1. Teaching and non-teaching staff.
2. Classroom buildings and other special teaching spaces.
3. Equipment, teaching materials and furniture.
4. Organization for implementing effective programmes of supervision, in-service teacher education and evaluation.

1. Teaching and non-teaching staff

The teaching and non-teaching staff of the schools in the Anuradhapura District have been by and large centrally recruited and deployed. However, internal transfers are effected by the Anuradhapura District Office depending on needs. Anuradhapura District presently has 3, 892 teachers for the 508 schools. As stated earlier, approximately 40 per cent of the schools in the district have less than 100 pupils each and 2/3 the total number of schools in the district have less than 200 pupils each. The 1978 school census data also reveals that the district has 33 one-teacher schools and 98 two-teacher schools. In other words nearly a quarter of the total number of schools in the district have one or two teachers each. It is reasonable to assume that in these locations teaching programmes are likely to be severely handicapped, particularly when there is a wide ranging grade span. Viewed in the context of heavy teacher absenteeism observed earlier the teaching programmes in these schools are likely to become severely dislocated, thereby leading to other complications such as large numbers of repetitions, drop-outs etc., and poor educational achievement as revealed by public examination results.

The graduate teacher ratio in the district is less favourable compared to the figure for Colombo and the island average, which implies that there is an imbalance in the provision of graduate teachers to the Anuradhapura District. The teacher class ratio in the district is also much lower

compared with the figures for Colombo and the Island average. This implies that in the district the number of classes exceeds the number of teachers. Teachers salary costs per pupil and the teacher salary costs per class in the district are also much lower than the Island average. This implies that the bulk of the teachers serving in the district are comparatively less qualified as revealed by the high graduate-pupil ratio and are relatively inexperienced with only a few years of teaching service. The earlier data also reveal that in the district there is a heavy degree of teacher absenteeism and a predominance of non-home based teachers which also, to a considerable extent, disrupt the teaching learning programme.

2. Classroom buildings and other special teaching spaces

The Central Ministry provides the funds for the construction of classrooms and special rooms such as science laboratories, workshops, agriculture units and commerce rooms etc., in the schools in the Anuradhapura District through the District Education Office, Anuradhapura. These funds are supplemented with funds obtained from the decentralised budget under the integrated District Development Programme where the District Minister, Anuradhapura decides on the priorities. The 1975 School Census Data revealed that approximately 40 per cent of the total number of teaching spaces available in the Anuradhapura District were either semi-permanent or temporary. However, conditions might have improved since then. The building construction programme in the district is also severely handicapped due to the difficult terrain of the area and problems of the transport of building materials due to poor accessibility. However, some of the areas of Anuradhapura which come within the ambit of the Mahaweli Development Project are now receiving priority attention where the construction of new school buildings is concerned.

Field observations and reports obtained from the district office, Anuradhapura also confirm the fact that, particularly in remote areas of the Anuradhapura District educational buildings are in a dilapidated condition and have been poorly maintained due to inadequacy of funds made available for the purpose.

The inadequacy of the science teaching facilities such as laboratories particularly at the General Certificate of Education, Ordinary level and advanced level are to some extent borne out by the poor performance of the students in these examinations, compared to those of other districts. Considerable delays are also being experienced in the district in the completion of construction works due to difficulties encountered in supervision by the technical staff of the district office. The difficult terrain and accessibility particularly in remote rural areas and the inadequate availability of technical staff and transport facilities have all contributed to compounding this problem to a considerable extent.

3. Equipment, teaching materials and furniture

The organization of an effective programme of teaching is contingent on the provision of teaching materials such as syllabuses of instruction, curricular, teachers guides, textbooks, library books, equipment and furniture in adequate quantities to meet functional needs. Syllabuses of instruction, and curricular materials such as teachers guides are distributed to schools in the Anuradhapura District mainly through the Circuit Education Officers in charge of the respective circuits. This

would entail the collection of materials from the district education office and effecting distribution through field visits. Further, these teaching materials have to be provided at the appropriate time preferably prior to the beginning of every school year. Past practices seem to indicate that there are considerable delays experienced in the distribution of these teaching materials. Quite often remote schools located in highly inaccessible areas and difficult terrain do not receive these materials in time to commence the teaching programmes.

In most remote areas schools are located so far apart that an effective programme of distribution cannot be organized systematically. In some extreme cases even the postal facilities available are far away from the schools so that a regular delivery of mail is not feasible. All these factors tend to compound this problem. The supply of equipment for the teaching of subjects such as home science, technical subjects and agriculture etc., and the supply of material such as chalk, stationery, etc., are also confronted with similar problems due to difficulties of transport and communication. These factors have contributed to an unsatisfactory situation in some of the remote schools in the area which comprise about 40 per cent of the total number of schools. In schools located in the urban areas of Anuradhapura District where transport and other infrastructure facilities are favourable, such problems do not exist. As stated earlier the recurrent unit costs of education in the district is much lower compared to the corresponding figures for Colombo and the Island average. Hence it is reasonable to assume that most of these schools are relatively ill-equipped to organise effective teaching-learning programmes.

The supply of furniture to the schools in the district is organised by the district office at Anuradhapura, which places orders with multipurpose co-operative societies and rural development societies etc. These orders have to be regularly followed-up to ensure that the work is completed in time and delivered to the schools concerned. Inadequate availability of staff for the purpose and the difficulties experienced in transport, to some extent dislocates these programmes of furniture production and distribution. Maintenance and repair of furniture at the school end is not properly organised in the district due to difficulties experienced in obtaining local craftsmen to attend to this type of work. The existing financial procedures and mechanics of control, prevent heads of schools from initiating such action without approval from the Director of Education, Anuradhapura. All these factors tend to compound the problems associated with the procurement and supply of materials, particularly to remote schools in the district.

Science and agriculture equipment of a permanent nature are supplied to these schools from Central Stores located in Colombo. Transport facilities available for the purpose are mainly through the public transport system, viz., the Railway. Such railway services are only available in the urban areas of the district. Equipment received at the Railway Stations would have to be transported from these to the schools concerend using other sources of transport at considerable expense to the schools. In extreme cases even if funds are available for such transport some of these schools are located three to five miles away from the main motorable highway so that accessibility using a vechicle becomes virtually impossible. In such situations, both pupils and teachers have to walk on the average six to ten miles a day to get to school and back home in the afternoon. However, it is significant to note that nearly 50 per cent of the schools in the Anuradhapura District are located in areas having fairly satisfactory transport and other infrastructure facilities. In these locations these problems do not exist.

4. Organization for implementing effective programmes of supervision, in-service teacher education and evaluation

School supervision, in-service teacher education and evaluation activities in the district are carried out by the Anuradhapura District education office, through the circuit education officers concerned. The effective organization of these activities entails the organization of regular visits to schools, providing professional support and guidance to teachers, identifying any problems that exist and formulation and implementation of remedial programmes, where necessary. These activities are severely handicapped due to transport and accessibility problems particularly in schools located in very remote areas. Further each of the Circuit Education Officers has to cover on the average 30 to 40 schools in each electorate and the schools are located far apart. These factors tend to compound the problem further.

The in-service teacher education programmes are mainly organized in some of the larger schools located in urban areas and the teachers from the remote schools are expected to attend these sessions, travelling long distances each way in difficult terrain and at considerable personal cost. They are only given duty leave to attend these sessions in addition to Railway Warrants where such Railway services are available. Under these difficult conditions, the participation of such teachers in these in-service teacher education sessions becomes difficult. Further, in schools with only one or two teachers, such participation would dislocate the entire teaching programme in the schools concerned. Viewed in this context, programmes of school supervision, in-service teacher education and evaluation are somewhat ineffective and non-productive in most of the remote schools in the Anuradhapura District.

CHAPTER IV
PROBLEMS CONFRONTED IN THE MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN THE AREAS CONCERNED

The foregoing analysis to some extent highlights most of the problems confronted in the management and administration of the schools in the Anuradhapura District. These problems could be summarized as follows:

1. Difficulties confronted in the provision of resource inputs such as teaching staff, teaching materials, building and equipment.
2. Difficulties encountered in the organization of effective programmes of field supervision, in-service teacher education and evaluation.
3. Difficulties encountered in the organization of effective teaching programmes, particularly in small schools with only one or two teachers and having a large grade span.
4. Difficulties encountered due to poor retention of pupils, repetition and teacher absenteeism.
5. Difficulties encountered in enlisting the co-operation of parents and the community in the maintenance and development of educational programmes in the schools concerned.
6. Difficulties encountered in the organization of effective channels of communication between schools and the district administration.
7. Difficulties encountered in the provision of amenities such as drinking water and other sanitary facilities and services.
8. Difficulties encountered due to the low socio-economic status of the pupils which to a considerable extent influence their academic achievement in schools.
9. Difficulties encountered due to inadequate availability of library books, textbooks and audio-visual equipment etc., and due to problems associated with funding and transport.
10. Difficulties encountered due to a lack of involvement of the local education officers and local people in the formulation of appropriate educational programmes for implementation in the areas taking into consideration its basic characteristics and resource endowments that have a bearing on education.

CHAPTER V
CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The earlier sections have focussed our attention on the various problems that confront the administration of education in the Anuradhapura District. Most of these problems however, appear to be inter-linked when viewed closely and some of these problems seem to reinforce each other. Hence it is significant to take note of these factors in trying to formulate solutions for the limitations in the administration of education in remote rural areas.

The administration of education is primarily concerned with the organization of an efficient and productive programme of education in the school system, whether it be an underdeveloped rural area or a developed urban area. This is contingent on the provision of requisite resources in terms of needs and the organization of an effective system of supervision, direction, in-service teacher education and evaluation. The provision of resource inputs and other supporting services come within the purview of the Central and District Education Administration. But, could these inputs alone create a favourable teaching/learning environment in the schools? Available research evidence seems to indicate that there are other vital factors which influence learning, such as the home background of the pupils, the socio-economic status and the education of the parents etc. These external factors are entirely beyond the control fo the Central Ministry of Education and the District Education Administration. The factors which come within the purview of the Ministry of Education could be appropriately geared by using relevant strategies and programmes presented in sequel. However the vital external factors stated earlier defy such simple solution. This illustrates the fact that the problems confronted in the administration of remote schools are multi-dimensional and the solutions to such problems should be sought through a comprehensive programme launched collectively by the Central and District Education Administration, the school community as well as other appropriate governmental and voluntary organizations. However, the following proposals are presented with a view to assisting the formulation of some basic guidelines to help the Central and the District Education Administration eliminate some of these problems.

1. To design and implement a more appropriate programme of teacher recruitment and deployment, particularly to schools in remote areas. A recent innovation introduced in this direction is the recruitment of teachers on a district basis, where they will serve in their home stations.

2. To provide incentive allowances, and living accommodation to teachers serving in remote rural areas and giving them preferences and recognition for promotions to the higher grades in the Education Service.

3. To allocate a proportionately larger share of financial resources to the development of education in rural areas depending on pupil enrolments, number of classes and functional needs. This is being carried out in Sri Lanka to some extent through the up-grading of schools in the rural areas and the provision of equipment and material obtained from sources such as UNICEF.

4. To organize comprehensive non-formal education programmes for parents of pupils in rural schools, which have elements such as literacy, specific aspects of vocational training, family improvement education including child care, health, nutrition and family planning etc. These could be organized in remote schools themselves after school hours or during week-ends and vacations.

5. To organize resource-centres in remote schools to serve the needs of the school community such as the distribution of seeds, plant material, fertilisers and the establishment of public libraries and even the organization of cultural activities.

6. To organize non-graded vertical grouping of pupils, particularly in small schools having a small number of teachers and several grades.

7. To utilize innovative teaching technologies such as team teaching, programmed instruction and extensive use of audio-visual aids and equipment in appropriate ways.

8. To design appropriate diagnostic tests for use in the identification of specific learning difficulties in students and to launch appropriate remedial programmes of teaching. This will to some extent alleviate the problem associated with poor retention and heavy repetition.

9. To design and implement special programmes of teacher-education for teachers serving in these areas, where aspects such as community leadership and special technologies of managing "small schools" are given sufficient coverage in the curriculum.

10. To design and organize special training programmes to Circuit Education Officers and District Education Administrators serving in such areas taking into consideration the specific problems and needs.

11. To increase the field supervisory cadres serving in such areas and providing them with enhanced transport facilities.

12. To subdivide each of the rural area circuits into smaller sub-circuits each under the charge of a Circuit Education Officer, in order to intensify the progammes of school supervision and to improve the channels of communication between the District Administration and the schools.

13. To provide incentives to pupils attending schools located in rural areas by way of provision of free mid-day meals, free text books, free transport facilities and other basic amenities in order to relieve the economic burden on rural parents.

14. To design and organize research activities to facilitate the understanding of problems associated in the administration and management of remote rural schools. These would include socio-economic surveys of these locations, assessment of basic learning needs of children in these areas and the like. These findings would be of use to other countries in the region which have similar problems.

Remote schools located in rural areas are underdeveloped, since the areas themselves in which they are located are also underdeveloped in terms of the infrastructure facilities available. Hence, in order to develop such schools, efforts should be made on several fronts. This brings into focus the need to design and launch programmes of integrated rural development which are comprehensive in coverage and are aimed at developing the entire rural infrastructure such as roads, water supply, electricity, communication facilities, schools and hospitals etc., and raising agricultural and industrial productivity and generation of employment. In other words, it should be a strategy aimed at improving the quality of life of the rural masses by up-grading their productive capacities through education and training, generation of employment and the consequent elimination of poverty, illiteracy, hunger and malnutrition etc. This would entail the collaboration of several Ministries at the national level and several donor agencies at the international level.

THE ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION IN THAILAND'S RURAL AREAS

by Rung Kaewdang

CHAPTER I
SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF RURAL AREAS

1. Population

About 83 per cent of the total population in Thailand is in rural areas. Only 17 per cent is in urban areas, and of this portion about 70 per cent is in the Bangkok Metropolis, the capital of the country.

Table 1 indicates the percentage of rural population among the four geographic regions of the country.

Table 1. Percentage of rural population by region

Region	Percentage of rural population
Bangkok	00.0
Central	90.2
Northeast	95.7
North	93.6
South	88.6
Whole Kingdom	83.1

Source: Ministry of Interior, National Registration Office.

Among the geographic regions, the Northeast has the highest percentage of rural population. This is also the most populous region (35 per cent of total population). The second and third most rural areas are the North and Central regions respectively, while the Southern region has the lowest percentage of rural population.

2. Economy

The report of the National Statistical Office (1976, p. 48) reveals that about 71 per cent of the total households are farmers. The main crops are rice, cassava, maize, suger, rubber, etc. Many farmers grow rice for both their own consumption and as a cash crop.

Normally, farming in Thailand still depends on rain with only 19 per cent of the total farm land irrigated. Farm productivity is low, and, thus the farmers in rural areas are poorer than the people in urban areas. A World Bank study (1979, 57), indicates that there are big differences of

income between the people in rural and urban areas. By using income below the poverty line[1] as an indicator, in rural areas 28 per cent of the total population have income below the poverty line while in urban areas only 11 per cent of the population are considered poor.

3. Settlement

In accord with their main occupation, the people in rural areas have settled in scattered small villages. The size of the villages varies from about 30 to 350 households. Ten years ago, communication among the villages was difficult. In order to provide primary education to the pupils in the 7-15 year old age group, the government, has usually built small schools in the villages.

4. Problems of population, economy and settlement as regards rural schooling

Schools represent a sub-system of society. Patterns of population, economy and human settlement have strong effects on schooling. Population declines resulting from migration to the urban areas and birth control have caused schools to become smaller in size. The pattern of human settlement is another factor that influences the size of school. Today, the primary schools tend to be small. The average size is 154 students per school. Based on data from the School Census, the five provinces which have highest percentage of small schools are indicated in Table 2.

Table 2. Percentage of small schools[2] in some provinces

Province	Region	Percentage	Rank
Ranong	South	47.2	1
Mae Hong Son	North	42.2	2
Trad	Central	41.1	3
Saraburi	Central	40.3	4
Panga	South	40.0	5
Whole Kingdom		21.7	-

Source : National Statistical Office. School Census.

Comparing small schools and big schools, the small schools have many disadvantages: e.g. one teacher may have to teach more than one classroom, the principal is both administrator and classroom teacher, and, thus may abandon his classroom when he has meetings and any assignment at the district offices. The Primary School Study (1977, p. 29) reveals that achievements of students from big schools are higher than students from small schools.

With respect to poverty, students in rural areas always have a shortage of clothes, learning materials, food for lunch etc.. These economic conditions affect the learning environment of the school

1. The poverty line is equal to US$7.50 per month per person in rural areas and US$10 in urban areas.
2. A small school is defined as one in which there are twenty or less grade one pupils.

and opportunities for further education. In the 1977 academic year, on average about 60 per cent of the students who graduated from primary schools continued to secondary schooling, but in the North-east this percentage was much less than the national average. Obviously such a situation affects the expectations and motivations of students in primary schools.

5. Basic data on Thailand

General (1977)

Area	514,000 Km^2
Population (mid-1977)	44.1 million
Rate of population growth	2.5 per cent
Density	86 per Km^2

Education (1977)

Level	Institutions	Students	% of age group
Pre-primary	3 174	245 486	5.94
Primary	32 204	6 896 047	83.72
Secondary	2 589	1 346 061	47.91
Higher	110	154 507	3.22
Total	34 309	8 622 101	-

CHAPTER II
THE ORGANISATION AND ADMINISTRATION SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

The educational administrative system in Thailand is a sub-system of the government system which is divided into two levels, namely, central and local government. The details of the educational administrative system at each level are as follows.

1. Central government

The main responsibilities of the educational organisation at the central level are both policy formulation and administrative implementation. The National Education Commission (NEC) is chaired by the Deputy Prime Minister. Its main responsibilities are to formulate policies, prepare the National Scheme for Education, and to prepare and submit the National Education Development Plan to the Council of the Ministers.

The University Bureau has responsibilities concerning the operation and supervision of higher education institutions, both public and private.

The Ministry of Education (MOE) has the responsibility for operating a small portion of primary, secondary and vocational education, teacher training, adult and special education and to supervise private schools from the kindergarden to the secondary level.

The Ministry of Interior (MOI) is involved in educational administration as the agency which controls local authorities, both the Provincial Administrative Organization (PAO) and the municipalities. These two local authorities control about 90 per cent of the primary schools. Municipal schools are of course in urban areas while the majority of primary schools in rural areas are controlled by 71 PAOs.

2. Local level

At this level, there are two parallel systems. The first system could be described as deconcentration or representation of the central government. The officials belong to the central government. The second system is a decentralized system with a locally elected council, but the personnel are still the central government officers. The Governor and District Officer hold both positions simultaneously as representative of the central government and as chiefs of local offices.

Provincial and District Education Officers who work for the MOE are responsible for secondary, vocational, adult and special education and supervise private schools.

CHAPTER III
SCHOOL OPERATION

1. Day-to-day school operation

Curriculum: Education in Thailand operates as a single system. That is, all schools use the same curriculum, especially at the primary level. The curricula and teacher-handbooks are distributed by the Department of Educational Techniques, Ministry of Education, to all schools throughout the country. However, in some grades there are elective subjects according to local needs, but the proportion of time for such courses is still limited.

Textbooks and educational material: For primary education which is conpulsory, basic textbooks on the Thai language and arithmetic are distributed free to poor pupils. These textbooks are produced by the government. At the secondary level students have to buy textbooks from a list selected by educational officials. Other materials e.g. exercise-books and chalk are, also, bought by the government officials and distributed to schools.

Teaching: The majority of primary school teachers still use the method which we call "chalk and talk". The use of audiovisual materials for classroom teaching is limited.

Supervision: In each province there are 10 to 12 educational supervisors who are under the General Educational Department, Ministry of Education. Normally, these supervisors are expected to visit schools and to assist teachers in improving their learning activities. But in reality, there are many problems in supervision such as: the administrative problems, that is, the PAO schools are under the control of the MOI while supervisors are under the MOE; excessive work-load, since there is a small number of supervisors in comparison to a great number of schools, it is impossible for them to visit a school once a year.

Evaluation: For grades 1 to 3 and 5 in the old system, schools can administer the end-of-year tests by themselves, while for grades 4 and 6 there are district and provincial wide testings.

2. Introducing educational innovations

Given a centralized administrative system, successful innovations are normally introduced at a high level of the hierarchy. In 1977, Thailand introduced a number of innovations to the system. The new National Scheme for Education 1977 replaced the old one which had been used since 1960.

Under the new National Scheme for Education, there are changes such as the following.

budgeting request forms to Provincial Educational Offices (PEO). Then the PEO distributes these forms to District Education Offices (DEO). After the budget is prepared and reviewed at the DOE, the budget proposal is sent to the PEO for review and adjustment.

The budget proposals are sent from the 71 PAOs to the Division of Elementary Education (DREE) for a second review and adjustments. After that, the budget proposal is submitted to the National Education Commission, to the National Economic and Social Development Board and finally, to the Budget Bureau.

Table 7. Amount of Budget for rural school buildings

Year	Amount (US$ million)	Rate of increase (index 1976-100)
1976	59.4	-
1977	60.6	102.0
1978	93.7	157.7

Source: Budget Bureau, op. cit.

Construction of a school building: After the budget is approved, it is sent back to the provinces. The financial section of the Provincial Administration Organization may then ask for bids. In controlling the construction, there is a committee which is composed of representatives of the PAO financial officer, district officer and others. The majority of school buildings financed by the central government are constructed by private contractors. The school buildings in Thailand are of standard design.

Furniture in rural schools typically includes pupils' desks and chairs, teachers' tables and chalk boards. The government also provides furniture to rural schools. However, the government budgeting process takes about two years. As a result, in temporary schools, the parents sometimes donate desks to the schools.

Some characteristics of school buildings in rural areas: In the 1978 academic year, there were 41,362 primary school buildings. Eight-six per cent of these were permanent ones. The rest were temporary or temple buildings. The Office of the National Education Commission has surveyed the Status of school buildings. The results are as shown in Table 8.

On average the primary school buildings in rural areas are 9.7 years old. With the exception of the schools in the Northern region, the age of buildings everywhere is almost the same.

With respect to classroom space per student, the average is 1.8 square metre per student. Among the regions, the Central and Northern regions are higher than the nation-wide average while the Northeastern and Southern regions are below the national mean.

However, the pupil/space ratio in primary schools in Thailand is above the Unesco standard which is only 1.2 square metres.

There is also the chief of the PAO Education Division which has special sections under the Provincial Administrative Organization (the local authority). The concerns of these sections are primary rural schools only.

3. School level

The educational administrative unit for schools is the district or Amphoe in Thai. In each district there are about 50-80 schools. By law, every school is under the direct control of the District Officer. Therefore, the span of control is wide.

Principals are the key school administrators. There are 28,500 schools in rural Thailand. The big schools (those with over 480 students) can have an assistant principal. In many rural primary schools, the principal is both school administrator and classroom teacher.

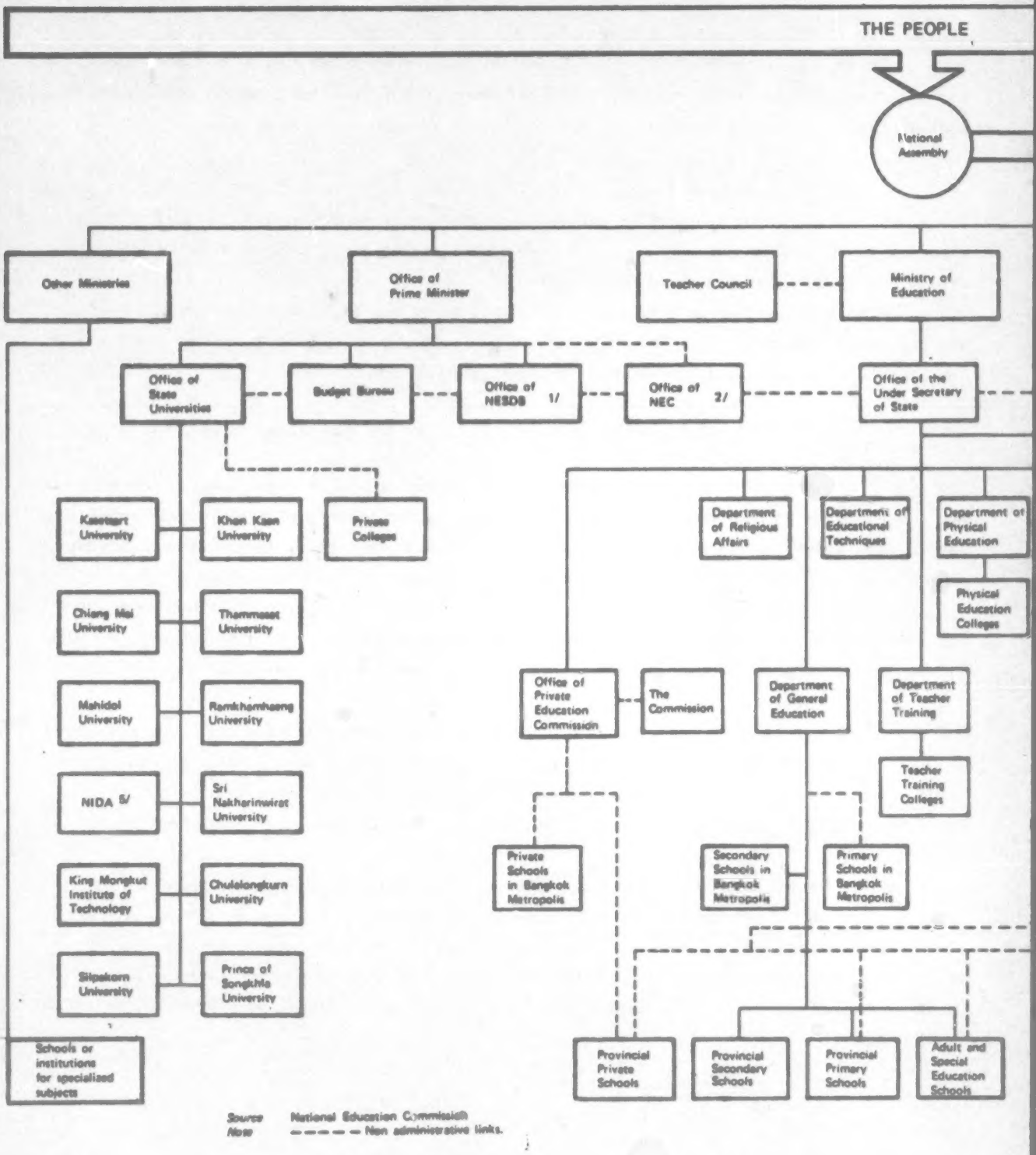
4. Problems concerning the organisational and administrative system

The system is highly centralized. All matters concerning educational policies, planning, curriculum, and evaluation are entirely controlled by the central government. The Provincial Administrative Organization and parents make very little inputs. More than 90 per cent of the educational expenditures for both primary and secondary levels come from central government subsidies.

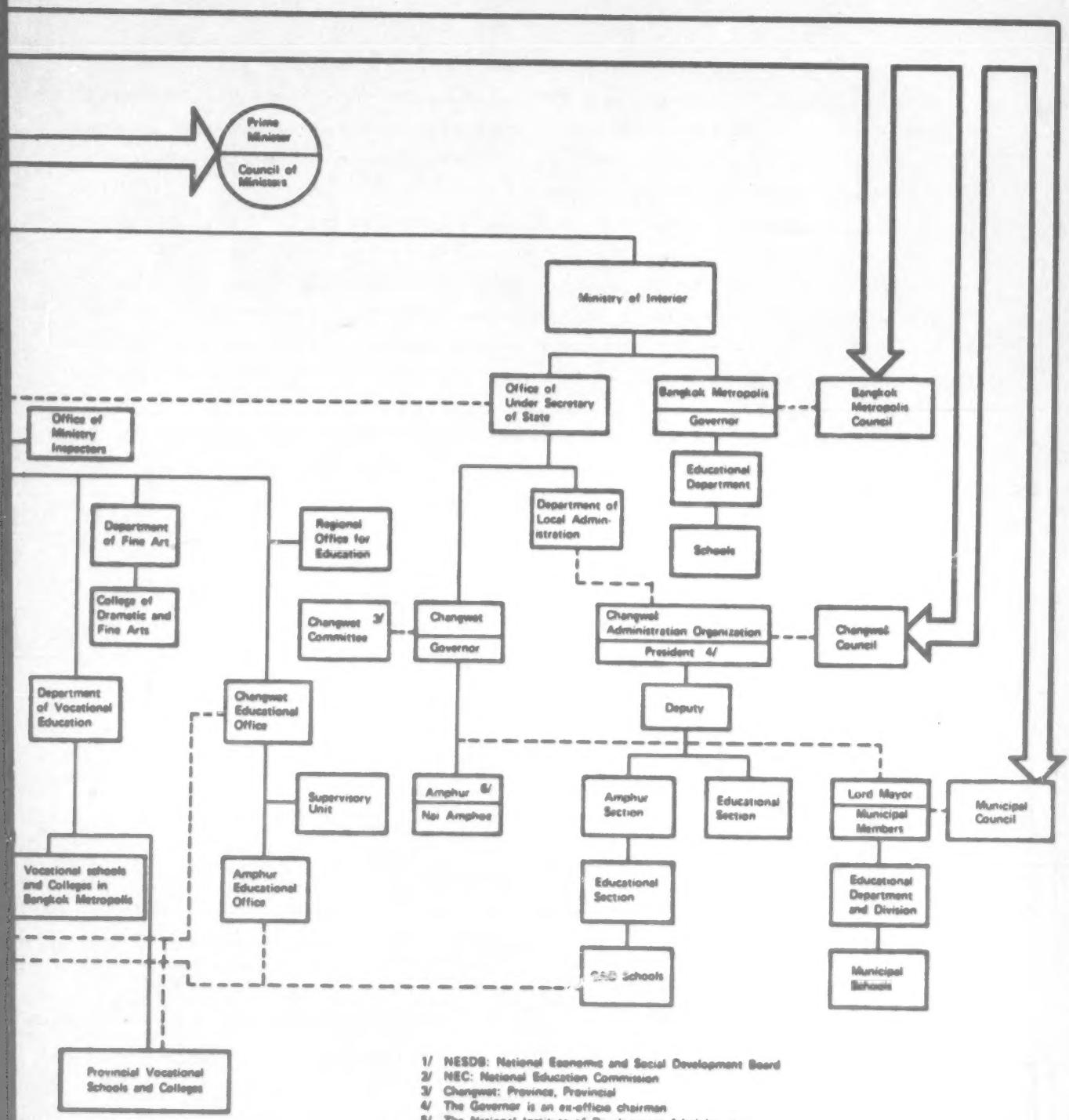
Limited administrative rôle of educators. As mentioned before, the PAOs are responsible for operating all rural primary schools, but key PAO officers such as the District Officers are MOI officers whose training and interests are in general administration. For them education seems to be a low priority concern.

Lack of unity. From the administrative chart it can be seen that there are many operational units concerned with primary schools. There are four in particular, namely, PAO, municipalities, MOE and private schools. Among these organizations, there are big differences in the quality of teachers, workload, standards etc. As a result, there is inequality and duplicating among types of schools.

Less emphasis at the school level. Because of the wide span of control, there is very little visiting from either supervisors at the provincial or district level. In many schools in rural areas, instructors teach only half the time. The principals and teachers do not make any inputs in preparing the budget request form for new school buildings, education materials etc. They also do not make any inputs in curriculum development, textbook selection, or educational materials purchasing.



Educational administration system of Thailand



1/ NESDB: National Economic and Social Development Board
2/ NEC: National Education Commission
3/ Changwat: Province, Provincial
4/ The Governor is an ex-officio chairman
5/ The National Institute of Development Administration
6/ Amphur: District

Educational structure: In the old system, the educational structure for primary and secondary schooling was 4:3:3(2), the new structure is 6:3:3. The major change is the merging of the cycles of primary education (four-year lower and three-year upper) into an integrated compulsory six year cycle. The new system was adapted in order to facilitate the expansion of compulsory education to all children aged 7-12 within the next five years.

New curriculum: A common criticism of the old curriculum was that it was not adapted to environmental needs and did not contain a sufficient number of practical elements to help school-leavers once they take their place in the world of work. Under the new curriculum of primary education, subjects will be grouped into four areas: basic skills (Thai and arithmatic); life experience (science, social studies, and work orientation (agriculture, home economics, industrial arts). A large part of the curriculum in the life experience and work orientation areas will vary according to local needs.

The new National Scheme for Education also introduces the automatic promotion system for primary schools and includes emphasis on non-formal education for out-of-school children, especially those who live in rural areas.

3. Education for girls

The percentage of boys and girls in school in Thailand by grade show some slight differences, but they are relatively small compared to many other Third World countries.

Table 3. Percentage of students by sex

Grades	Male	Female
Kindergarten and pre-primary	52.0	48.0
Lower Primary	52.0	48.0
Upper Primary	56.0	44.0
Lower Secondary	58.0	42.0
Upper Secondary	53.0	47.0
Total	53.3	46.7

Source : National Statistical Office, 1976 Final Report on Education Statistics (Bangkok : Office of Prime Minister, 1977) Table 1.

At the kindergarten, pre-primary and lower primary levels, enrolment of male and female pupils differs only by about two percentage points.

At the upper primary and lower secondary levels, however, the percentage of female pupils declines.

CHAPTER IV
THE PROVISION OF EDUCATION IN RURAL AREAS

1. The financial system of education

In order to understand the provision of education, it is important to understand the financial system of education.

Government expenditures on education: In the fiscal year 1978, education expenditures were 20.1 per cent of total government expenditures. Educational expenditures increased about 9 per cent in money terms from the previous year. They are second only to economic expenditures which represented 20.2 per cent of total expenditures, and constituted 3.79 per cent of GDP (Budget Bureau, 1978, p. 16).

The allocation of education expenditures: Primary education consumes about 54 per cent of total educational expenditures. The second largest portion is allocated to secondary education which is followed by higher education (universities) and technical and teacher training colleges, respectively.

Table 4. Percentage of education expenditures by type and level, fiscal year 1978

Type and level	Percentage
Administration	4.1
Primary education	53.9
Secondary education	16.8
Higher education	12.9
Technical and teacher education	9.9
Adult education	1.5
Others	0.9
Total	100.0

Source: Budget Bureau, Budget in brief FY 1978 (Bangkok, Government Printing Office, 1978) p. 18.

About 88 per cent of primary educational expenditures are allocated to rural primary schools The distribution of expenditure by purpose is shown in Table 5.

Recurring expenditures, most of which are teacher salaries, constitute about 74 per cent of expenditures. The expenditures for free textbooks, clothing and lunch are included

Table 5. Percentage of rural primary education expenditure by purpose

Purposes	Percentage
Recurring expenditures	73.5
- Salaries	65.1
- Materials	0.6
- Allowance	0.1
- Others	8.7
Capital expenditures	25.2
- Furniture and equipment	1.7
- Buildings	23.5

Source: Budget Bureau op. cit.

under other expenditures. About one-fourth of the total expenditure is capital costs, most of which represents the costs of building.

Primary and secondary schooling are the main responsibility of the central government. The proportion of the central government's contribution is as follows. (see Table 6)

Table 6. Percentage of educational expenditure by source

Level and type	Central Budget	Donation	Fees	Local	Total
Primary level					
MOE schools	97.7	0.2	2.1	-	100.0
PAO schools	97.6	0.7	0.6	1.1	100.0
Municipal schools	59.0	-	-	41.1	100.1
Secondary level	89.4	2.0	8.7	-	100.1

Source: Nicholas Bennett, Problems of financing the Thai educational system (Bangkok, Kurusapha, 1974) pp. 54-57.)

With the exception of municipal schools, the central government pays about 98 per cent of total expenditures. In the case of PAO schools, the local authorities pay only one per cent.

2. Supply of buildings and furniture

Almost all school buildings in rural areas are financed by the central government. The amount of money spent on buildings for the fiscal years 1976-78 was as follows. (see Table 7).

Request for budget: The educational budgeting process for the construction of rural school buildings is as follows:

The Division of Rural Elementary Education (DREE), Department of Local Administration, MOI, which is the co-ordinating organization for PAO schools at the central level, distributes

Table 8. Some characteristics of rural primary school buildings by region

Variable	Region				
	Central	Northeast	North	South	Total
(years)	10.0	10.5	7.6	10.6	9.7
Space/student(m^2)	2.1	1.5	2.2	1.5	1.8
Space utilization[1]	-	-	-	-	-
Lower than norm	92.2	57.6	90.6	66.7	74.2
Higher than norm	7.8	42.4	9.4	33.3	25.8

Source: National Education Commission, Report on Survey of Space Utilization of Primary School. (Preliminary report)

1. Space Utilization rate = $\frac{\text{Total space X 100}}{\text{Expected room area}}$

$\text{Expected room area} = \frac{\text{Total room space}}{\text{Space per student by norm}}$

Problems concerning school buildings and furniture: The major problem concerning school buildings in rural areas is the replacement of temporary buildings of which there are still 5,680 units. Most of them are newly established schools.

The second problem is inequality in the distribution of buildings. According to the new National Scheme for Education, the length of primary schooling is reduced one grade (grade 7). Presently, the schools which previously offered grade 7 have empty classrooms and unused furniture, while in some schools, especially in remote rural areas, there are temporary buildings with crowded rooms and shortage of furniture.

The third problem concerning buildings is uniform construction standards. The building construction and forms are not flexible and adaptable to the local environment and local utilization.

3. Teachers

Personnel administration for teachers in both primary and secondary schools in Thailand is the responsibility of the Teachers' Council. Some important aspects concerning teachers in rural areas are:

Recruitment: Primary school teachers are recruited from graduates of teacher training colleges and faculties of education. The teacher training colleges offer three basic types of programmes (i) certificate level-two years after grade 10; (ii) higher certificate or diploma courses-four years after grade 10 or two years after certificate courses; and (iii) degree courses-four years after grade 12 or certificate courses, or two years after diploma courses.

Teacher training colleges offer certificate diploma courses and a small portion of degree courses, while universities are responsible for degree and post-graduate levels.

The recruitment of new teachers for rural primary schools occurs about four months after the beginning of the new fiscal year. The Division of Rural Elementary Education announces the number of new positions that each province is allocated. The provinces, then, recruit new teachers by examination. In the 1978 academic year, the percentage of new teachers by qualification was 5:35 and 55 for degree: diploma: and certificate, respectively.

Qualifications: A National Statistical Office Survey conducted in 1977 indicates that the percentage of teachers by qualification is as follows:

Table 9. Percentage of rural primary teachers by qualification

Qualification	Percentage
Bachelor's degree or higher	1.9
Diploma in Ed. or equivalent	31.1
Certificate in Ed. or equivalent	39.1
Pre-primary teaching cert.	11.5
Unqualified teacher	16.5
Total	100.0

Source: National Statistical Office, Ibid, p. 22

About 70 per cent of teachers have certificates or diplomas, while only 2 per cent have degrees. Sixteen per cent of the total number of teachers are unqualified teachers. These teachers were recruited into the system during an earlier period when shortage of teachers was the big problem of rural primary schools.

In-service training: With respect to in-service training for teachers in rural areas, there are two types: (i) Short training programmes for special purposes. For example, during the last academic year, the government spent about one million US dollars to train grade one teachers for the new curriculum, learning materials and evaluation system; another is the training of principals who are the leaders of school clusters to understand new management techniques for improving the school administration. This type of training is offered annually by four regional universities. At the province and district levels, there are frequently other training opportunities, especially, on methods of teaching for particular subjects. (ii) Degree training. This type of training is offered by 36 teacher training colleges throughout the country. The programme is designed for diploma teachers working for a bachelor's degree. It takes about six semesters and two summers to complete the academic programme. There is another type of in-service training for certificate teachers or uncertificated teachers. The certificate examination is also offered annually by the Teachers' Council.

Female teachers: In Thailand, there is relatively little sex discrimination. Methods of teacher recruitment as already mentioned consists of an examination to determine qualifications. Appointments are based on rank of examination scores more than sex. The National Statistical Office Schools Survey (1978, p. 22), reveals that 62 per cent of primary school teachers are males. This report also mentions that the median age is 34 for males and 27 for females.

Problems concerning teachers: Actually, student/teacher ratios and supply of trained teachers are not big problems for the country. An important point about teachers which should be mentioned here relates to in-service training. The system which is offered today seems mainly for the profit of the teachers. The main problem of in-service training is that the curriculum is not appropriate to the rural school situation. Teachers are not able to improve their teaching or management activities.

4. Supply of school textbooks, clothes and lunch

Many of the students in rural areas come from poor families. The government provides free textbooks and exercise books. They also may provide clothes and lunch in some areas. In 1975, the National Statistical Office surveyed the needs and supply of books, clothes and lunch in rural primary schools. The results are shown in the following table.

About 29 per cent of total pupils lack stationery (exercise books and pencils etc.) while the government provides free writing materials to 48 per cent of the total primary school pupils. About one-third of pupils receive free textbooks, seven per cent receive free pupil uniforms and only two per cent receive free school lunches.

Table 10. Percentage of pupils in need and supply of materials

Items	Percentage of needing pupils item	Percentage of pupils free materials
Stationery	29.4	48.3
Textbooks	25.2	30.8
Clothes	17.7	7.1
Lunch	3.8	2.2

Source: National Statistical Office, Ibid, pp. 11-12

CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Conclusions

Thailand's educational system is highly centralized. People at the local level have very limited opportunities to participate or to affect educational policy, curriculum development, school operations and evaluation. At the provincial level, there is an elected Provincial Council. At the school level, there is an appointed Board. Roles of Councils and Boards are, however, limited. Some Boards do not meet for long periods of time. There are many factors which prevent the common people from participating. The first one relates to the financial system for schooling with about 97 per cent of total expenditures consisting of central government subsidies. The second is the failure of government offices to be adequately concerned with laymen.

The organization of education administratively is a dual system, with financial and general administration matters under the control of the MOI, while supervision, textbooks, and curriculum are under the control of the MOE. Conflict between the two organizations has increased. Supervision and inspection at the school level are not sufficient.

With respect to the overall supply of educational facilities and materials for rural areas, the data reveal that buildings, furniture and materials are adequate. However, disparities (both in terms of achievement outcomes and educational inputs) represent a serious issue at the school, provincial and regional levels.

Another serious problem is the in-service training of teachers which is provided by 36 teacher training colleges. The curriculum and contents are not relevant to the problems and situation in rural schools.

2. Recommendations

Participation of local people. The government should strengthen the Boards of Education, especially at the school level in the following ways: (i) Composition of the Board. Presently, all Board members are appointed. Normally, they are senior people and many of them have other commitments. The new Board should be composed of two groups; the first group would be an appointed group, the other would be an elected group. Each elected Board member would serve for three years. (ii) More participation in the policy process. The new Board should have clear responsibilities for policies on school programmes, curriculum of elective subjects, especially those with work orientation etc.

Organization and administration. At present, the Office of the National Education Commission in co-operation with the MOE, the MOI, faculties of Education of two universities and two provinces, are experimenting with the project, "An alternative organization and administration for primary schools in Thailand : an administrative approach for improving the efficiency of delivering mass in education in rural areas". The purposes of the project are: (i) To develop a new local (cluster level) organization and administrative system; (ii) to test new administrative models in a natural setting.

Currently, a pilot school consolidation project is underway. Under this pilot project, the schools in sub-districts have consolidated their administrative system. However, the campuses are not consolidated. The schools in the cluster plan their teaching and learning together; sharing resources, special subject teachers, test materials and audio visual materials. This project is taking place in two provinces, one in Central Thailand and the other in the Northeast. There are 255 participating schools. The project will be completed at the end of fiscal year 1981. The results of the project may improve the organization and management both at the cluster and school levels.

Supplies of materials: Under the present financial system, most of the budget goes on salaries and buildings. The budget for teaching materials (not including textbooks) is less than two per cent of total expenditures.

The government should spend more money for teaching materials, e. g., labs for science, nurseries and equipment for agriculture, workshops for mechanics and physical education equipment. Without these teaching materials, it seems impossible to fulfil the goals and objectives of the new National Scheme for Education and the new curriculum.

In-service training for rural teachers: The Department of Teacher Education should revise the in-service training programme both with respect to curriculum and the delivery system for training.

The curriculum should be designed to improve the learning situation in rural areas, and take account of local needs and local problems. Before revising the present curriculum, the Department of Teacher Education will have to survey other local needs and problems.

The delivery system: Currently in-service training is held at the teacher training colleges in urban areas, which are far away from the remote rural schools. Every week many teachers lose teaching hours while travelling to the urban area for study. In order to reduce this wastage, the in-service programme should offer off-campus training in primary schools in rural areas. Experimentation with extension centres for in-serving training has recently started in Udorn province.

Disparities: In order to reduce disparities of educational inputs among the schools, districts, provinces and regions, the government should change the line-item budgeting system being presently used. Instead a Full State Funding Model (see Benson et al., 1977) should be implemented. This model has a number of advantages over the present model. First, FSF responds to both local economic status and educational needs. Second a FSF model would reduce the disparities of educational inputs existing under the present system.

3. Final remarks

This paper emphasizes the issue of education in rural areas. It concerns the supplies of buildings, classrooms, furniture, textbooks, learning materials, teachers and the management of school systems. The students as the recipients or clients of the education system, are mentioned very little. At present, we unfortunately know very little about children in rural areas, their needs, how much they learn in school, and how they interrelate with teachers who may frequently come from other villages. Another important thing which we do not know is whether children can apply in their rural environment the things that they learn for six years in school. After they leave school they return to the real world. All of these unanswered questions are directly related to the problem of the effective delivery of educational services to remote rural areas.

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